

The Nation

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Summary of the News

Mr. Asquith's announcement in the House of Commons on Monday of the measures of retaliation which the British Government proposes to take against Germany's declaration of a "war zone" was in line with the cabled forecasts. Great Britain, Mr. Asquith declared, would endeavor to prevent commodities of every kind from reaching or leaving the ports of the enemy, but would enforce this embargo without endangering neutral vessels or their crews. Nor was it the intention of the British Government to confiscate ships or cargoes which might be detained unless they were liable to confiscation under normal conditions of war. These measures of retaliation, the Premier said, Great Britain had been compelled to adopt, through Germany's systematic violation of all the conventions intended for the mitigation of warfare. They would be enforced with strict observance of the dictates of humanity, but the Allies did not purpose "to allow their efforts to be strangled in a network of judicial niceties."

Simultaneously with Mr. Asquith's announcement in the House of Commons, notes from France and England embodying the substance of his statement were received at the State Department in Washington. These notes, it was expressly intimated, are not to be regarded as the formal reply to the communications which the United States Government addressed last week to the Governments of Great Britain and Germany, suggesting some measure of compromise which should relieve the hardships imposed by present conditions upon neutral shipping. The exact scope of those proposals has not, as we write, been made public, but it is generally understood that they reproduced in effect the compromise suggested by the German note of February 19, that Germany would countermand her submarine blockade if Great Britain would consent to the admission of food-stuffs into Germany for consumption by the civil population. German consideration of the suggestion of the United States Government is understood to have been favorable, but it was hardly expected that a compromise of the kind contemplated would commend itself to the Allied Powers. It is noticeable, however, that the terms used in the present note are not absolutely categorical, but state that the British and French Governments will "hold themselves free to detain and take into port ships carrying goods of presumed enemy destination, ownership, or origin." Further comment on this matter will be found in our editorial columns.

In a letter addressed to Herbert C. Hoover, chairman of the American Belgian Relief Committee, on February 22, Sir Edward Grey stated that, in view of the refusal of the German Government to consider a cessation of its pecuniary exactions in Belgium, and especially the levy of 40,000,000 francs a month, the British Government found itself unable to carry out its undertaking to grant a

monthly subvention to the Commission for Belgian Relief. Such a subvention, under the circumstances, would merely be for the British Government to facilitate the feeding and paying for the maintenance of the German army.

Great Britain has rather astutely avoided possible vexation in the case of the Dacia by deputing the task of arresting that vessel to her ally, France, the rules of the latter country in the case of the transfer of vessels of belligerents to a neutral flag being more specific than those of Great Britain. The Dacia was seized by a French cruiser in the English Channel on February 28, and taken into Brest.

Congress adjourns to-day (Thursday). As we write, desperate efforts are being made to expedite the passage of appropriation measures before the adjournment, and these will doubtless go through. In the House the fight over the Ship Purchase bill has been maintained up to the last moment, President Wilson continuing to urge its passage.

Carter H. Harrison, who has been Mayor of Chicago five times, was on February 23 defeated by a large majority at the primary election for a sixth term. It is interesting to note that these primaries were the first in which the women of Chicago took part. The result, however, does not appear to have been due to any preponderance of the women's vote for one candidate or the other.

The perils of class legislation, carelessly undertaken, were well exemplified by a decision of the Court of Appeals of New York State on February 25. The Court upheld the constitutionality of the provision of the State labor law prohibiting the employment of aliens on public works, and forfeiting contracts in cases where the law has been violated. The particular question involved was that of the employment of alien labor on the new subway system of New York. The result, unless the law is immediately repealed, will be to delay the completion of a public undertaking which is urgently needed, and, in a year when unemployment has been exceptionally prevalent in New York, to add to the tale of the unemployed several thousand alien laborers, who have been doing work which it appears extremely improbable that American workmen could be induced to do, or, if they could, would be found capable of doing.

Revelations of an alleged plot to obtain fraudulent passports, by which Germans might be sent from this country to act as spies in England, were made last week in the confession of a German naval reservist called Stegler, after his arrest on a charge of having induced another man to impersonate him in obtaining a passport. It is alleged by Stegler that he was persuaded to enter the conspiracy by Capt. Boy-Ed, naval attaché of the German Embassy in Washington. Stegler and two others were indicted by the Federal Grand Jury on Monday. The Federal Grand Jury also began an investigation on February 26 into alleged violations of the customs laws by which ship-

ping interests are said to have sent from American ports chartered neutral ships with supplies for belligerent war vessels. The first case under investigation was that of the Hamburg-American Line, which, it was alleged, had attempted to employ two Norwegian vessels to carry supplies to the converted German cruiser Kaiser Wilhelm der Grosse and the cruiser Karlsruhe. Indictments were returned against officials of the line on Monday on the ground that they had conspired against the United States by making out false clearance papers and false manifests for the collection of customs.

The preliminary estimates for the German budget, adopted by the Federal Council on February 27, included 10,042,000,000 marks for extraordinary expenditures in connection with the war. The estimate of ordinary expenditures was 3,323,000,000 marks.

The third and fourth votes of credit to meet the expenses of the war were introduced in the House of Commons on Monday. These comprise £37,000,000 to balance the expenditures of the current fiscal year, making the total cost of eight months of war £362,000,000, and another vote of £250,000,000 as the first instalment for the year beginning April 1.

In answer to a question in the House of Commons on February 25, referring to the recent statement of M. Sazonof, the Russian Foreign Minister, in the Duma, with regard to the future of Constantinople, Sir Edward Grey declared that Great Britain was "in entire accord with Russia's desire for access to the sea." What form the realization of Russian aspirations would take, he added, would "no doubt be settled in the terms of peace."

According to recent dispatches, both from Peking and Tokio, prospects for a settlement of the differences which have arisen out of the demands made by Japan of China have improved. From Peking it was stated on February 25 that the Japanese Government has given assurances that it will not insist for the present upon the group of general demands which it presented, and to which China chiefly objected. Dispatches from Tokio on February 27 recorded a conversation held by Count Okuma with Prof. Shailer Mathews, of the University of Chicago, and Dr. Sidney L. Gulick, of New York. Count Okuma stated that Japan had no intention of trespassing upon the rights of China or of interfering with the open-door policy. The desire of Japan was that China should attain to real dignity and independence, and should not fall the prey of any nation.

The deaths of the week include: Theodore M. Davis, Col. Joseph Battell, February 23; Prof. John Ellsworth Goodrich, Charles W. Close, February 24; Charles E. Bessey, John Chipman Gray, Thomas Swinyard, February 25; Prof. Frank Asbury Sherman, William Uhler Hensel, February 26; Bishop Raphael Hawaweeny, Rudolph Berger, George Lawley, February 27; Dr. John Patrick McGowan, February 28; Frank T. Bullen, Rev. Dr. Thomas McCurdy, March 1.

The Week

Lord Bryce's statement in the *London Chronicle* on the position of the United States in reference to the war should put to shame those Americans who have been clamoring that we should "do something" about the violation of Belgium's neutrality and flagrant breaches of recognized rules of war. Even the great name of a former President does not deter Lord Bryce from seeing the strength of Mr. Wilson's position:

The United States is the greatest of the neutral Powers. The Administration might conceive that many questions will arise during the war in which the rights of all neutrals would be involved, and might think that the authority with which the United States can speak on such questions would be weakened if at the outset its Government had taken up a position adverse to one or the other party to the struggle. However high the motive, impartiality would thereafter be questioned.

Upon the specific point of Belgian neutrality, he is as clear-sighted. There can be no doubt of the wrong in the attack upon Belgium. "But," he adds, "the other breaches which followed and made the violation seem more shocking, rested at first on statements which needed confirmation and any Government might feel that before protesting against the treatment of non-combatants it needed further evidence which would carry certainty to every fair mind."

It was exceedingly clever management by the Allies to have a French cruiser take the Dacia into port. The status of that former German ship will now be determined by a French prize court. And the French rule of law has been dead against such transfers of flag by the vessels of a belligerent, after war has broken out. The British rule, on the contrary, has in the past been rather in favor of recognizing the validity of such purchases, provided they were made in good faith. Judgments of English prize courts have repeatedly held that the turning over of an enemy ship to a neutral is not invalidated by the mere fact that it has been done "during or in contemplation of hostilities." That this is the British rule of law was frankly stated by English newspapers, such as the *Manchester Guardian*, when the case of the Dacia was first under discussion. It is easy to understand, therefore, the motives which led the Allies to bring the transferred ship under the less generous precedents of French prize courts. The assertion is, indeed, made in London that a British prize court would have come to the same conclu-

sion to which the French will come, but that the English judges would have had to do a good deal of preliminary "reasoning."

The tone of the London press is noticeably less hopeful regarding the intervention of Rumania and Italy. The reasons for Rumania's supposed swerve from the Allies is found in the Russian defeats in Bukowina and East Prussia, and the official announcement of Russia's aspirations in the Mediterranean. In Italy it is plain that the mission of the German Socialist Deputies who visited the country in the early weeks of the war has been at least partially successful. It is the Socialist party that has been most active in working for the maintenance of Italian neutrality. At bottom, however, the supposed fluctuations in Rumanian and Italian sentiment are largely the product of the journalistic imagination. It has been recognized all along that even if these countries enter the war, such action cannot come before spring. The daily study of the political barometer at Rome and Bucharest is quite beside the purpose. In so far as concerns the situation created by the possibility of the fall of Constantinople, it is probably true that neither at Rome nor at Bucharest is there much satisfaction at the prospect of Russia's emerging into the Mediterranean. Yet since it is inconceivable that Italy and Rumania will fight the Allies in order to keep Russia north of the Bosphorus, prudence would dictate their coming to terms with the Allies.

In the Austrian diplomatic correspondence, published in this country on Sunday, there is little that throws really new light upon the origins of the war. We are still without the actual exchanges of view between Vienna and Berlin that took place while hostilities were brewing. One minor point appears for the first time in a dispatch sent by Count Berchtold on July 24. This was, of course, before Serbia had replied to the Austrian ultimatum. How bent the Government at Vienna was upon having a Serbian war is made clearer than ever by a passage in the telegram referred to. It stated: "If Serbia, after the expiration of the term of grace, will yield only under pressure of our military preparations, we must hold it to account for the costs that have accrued to us. As is well known, we were twice (1908 and 1912) obliged to mobilize on account of Serbia." Thus we perceive that even if Serbia had yielded, Austria had a

new and impossible demand to add to the ones already made. The Vienna Forwards were determined to let slip no chance of having a war.

It was not so very long ago that British Cabinet Ministers were described as uttering veiled threats of conscription in case the nation's response to the call for volunteers was not more hearty. Why such dark hints should have emanated from responsible quarters, and why the press should have been so panicky over recruiting, is still a mystery, since it is plain now that Lord Kitchener has had no trouble in getting all the men he wanted. The new note of confidence is striking. Not only are there men enough, but the quality is described as excellent. Spenser Wilkinson, best known of English military writers, has declared that the new trained men are as good fighting material as may be found in any army, and fully equal to the best traditions of the English army. Apart from the immediate significance, this excellent showing has much meaning to the great mass of Englishmen as disposing of all talk of conscription, a word to which the English mind is plainly not reconciled. Mr. Wilkinson declares that, had conscription been introduced into England a dozen years ago on the German model, England would not have had to-day as fit an army as she has obtained under the volunteer system.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the case of the California and Wyoming oil lands, withdrawn from entry by President Taft in 1909, has apparently passed without comment from either of our ex-Presidents. Yet President Taft's doubt of his right to withdraw such lands in the absence of an enabling statute—a right asserted by President Roosevelt—was one of the early differences between them. Originally such withdrawals were technically made for temporary purposes, and the fact that nothing prevented their being made practically permanent gave them, in Mr. Taft's law-respecting mind, the taint of Executive usurpation. His appeal to Congress for a special act validating his decree, besides irritating Gifford Pinchot, had an unfortunate result. Congress placed limitations in the future upon the executive power to withdraw public lands, and left the President's actual decree to be tested by the courts. Overruling the District Court, the Supreme Court has now upheld the decree on the peculiar ground that because the Executive had made these withdrawals since

1835 without Congressional protest, his authority had thereby become established. The immediate gain for the public is considerable, for the mineral rights upon more than 3,000,000 acres are preserved.

The more interesting of the two discoveries in applied chemistry announced by the Bureau of Mines is that relating to the extraction of two dyeing ingredients—toluol and benzol—from petroleum. It is predicted that it will give a new direction to an industry that has depended mainly upon coal-tar products, and that it will form the basis of a manufacture which will forever render us independent of Germany. Most of the great names in the history of dyeing are German—Runge, Graebe, Liebermann, and Baeyer—and her trade secrets and trade enterprise, with her control over the largest supplies of useful coal tar, have given her a virtual monopoly. But it is doubtless an error to suppose that our new dyeing industry will spring full-grown from the earth, even should Dr. Rittman's discovery be all that is asserted of it. There is a business side to such enterprises, and capital and patient labor are required for their development. Enthusiastic Canadian promoters in various lines have just received a warning to this effect from the Government. The second discovery, that of a new process of refining gasoline from petroleum, should be immediately applicable in scores of plants. Only in general terms can necessity be called the mother of these inventions, for the research was begun before the war broke out. It is to be hoped that Government-aided experts, laboring in such laboratories as Columbia University furnished for this work, will in time be able to make many more such contributions to the advancement of industry.

Certain vigorous industrial bantlings which were cast on the rocks by the present tariff law protested that the experience meant ruin, not stimulation. They will have much to explain away in the report by the Department of Commerce upon the fairly typical pottery business. Published last week, it summarizes an investigation begun when the United States Potters' Association announced that any reduction in selling prices following the tariff "must be followed by a corresponding reduction in wages." Why not, asks the Department, follow it by increased efficiency? It finds that the potters of America are without adequate knowledge of the costs of production in their own

industry, and that these costs, with earnings and profits, show the widest variations. Many pottery plants are poorly situated, and in consequence of the haphazard development of the industry, poorly arranged; few indeed have modern buildings equipped throughout with up-to-date machinery. The selling list used by American potters bears the most erratic relation to cost of manufacture. Finally, more scientific methods of production are urgent, and the stimulation of schools of ceramics a necessity. It is evidence of the Department's fairness that it finds that the cost of labor per unit of production sometimes rises to 80 per cent. more in America than in Europe. But the industry is still protected by a moderate tariff, and by the cost of transportation of foreign wares, while it has cheaper materials.

The damagogue who would inflame class or sectional feeling will not be helped by the map, which has been making the rounds of the newspapers, showing in white the States that have workmen's compensation laws, and in black those without. His impulse to denounce Pennsylvania as typical of the ruthlessness of capitalism or the slavery of the East will be sharply checked by the white space adjoining it and representing New York. In the same way he will be prevented from pointing to Kansas and Nebraska as representative of what happens when the plain people are in control, or of the superior Americanism of the West, since there are exactly as many black spaces west of the Mississippi as east of it. The South is the only section where there are more States without compensation laws than with them, but this fact only emphasizes the explanation that underlies the difference between States in this respect: that laws are apt to be passed in States that especially need them, and that their absence in others is not necessarily to be construed as indicating a hopelessly reactionary spirit. The North is manufacturing, the South and West agricultural: in this variation of natural conditions rather than in any distinction of progressive and unprogressive lies the fundamental cause for the presence or the absence of compensation laws.

The report of Wisconsin's Industrial Commission upon women's wages in that State must make employers glad that wage-rulings are there dependent upon the findings of subordinate boards for each industry. None of the nine States with minimum wage laws has taken so extreme a view. It is

stated that the working woman needs \$9.50 a week for a bare living, "including nothing for sickness or emergencies, aid to dependents, contributions to churches or societies, insurance premiums and savings, newspapers and periodicals, recreation or vacation expenses." It is not surprising to learn that 58 per cent. of the women in the State's industries fail to get this wage. Over 18 per cent. of the women live away from home. But the Commission would apply its minimum wage to all, declaring that the worker who lives at home usually contributes a portion of her pay to family expenses. Beyond all doubt, wage conditions for women in Wisconsin need readjustment, as they did in Massachusetts and as investigators believe they do in New York. But Oregon placed the highest statement of the minimum wage at \$8.50, and this figure, in practical recommendations, had not hitherto been exceeded.

Not the republic of letters, but the town-meeting of letters, is apparently the idea of many of our Congressmen, if we may judge from the debates preceding the usual defeat of the bill for the incorporation of the Academy of Arts and Letters. The sponsors of the bill realized that they were on the defensive, and opened the discussion by trying to minimize the part that residents of New York and Boston have on the roster of the Academy. It "is not an unreasonable thing in the circumstances," said Representative Slayden in his gentlest tones, that "the bulk of these gentlemen live in New York and the East." This shows no native superiority of this section, rather the contrary, for "they come from all parts of the country originally, but the market for their wares is in New York and Boston, and they—like a mechanic or a lawyer or a merchant under like circumstances—go to the market in which they will thrive and in which their profession has the greatest recognition." But Representative Austin, of Tennessee, was not to be beguiled by crafty references to mechanics, lawyers, and merchants. "I do not see," he complained, "a resident of the Southern States south of the Potomac River in the list of the individuals." Mr. Sloan, of Nebraska, was more specific: "I desire to ask if any one has discovered why Walt Mason, the most widely read and the most generally read and the best paid poet on the Western continent, a citizen of Nebraska, loaned temporarily to Kansas, is not mentioned on that list." This surely was to leave out Hamlet; and the bill quietly expired.

ENGLAND'S FALSE STEP.

The course proposed is without sanction in international law. How is it justified? By the conduct of our adversary.

This is an extract from a London newspaper. It is commenting upon an action, not of the German Government, but of the British. Yet it will be noted that it goes over precisely to the German position. What is international law compared with "necessity"? Anything is warranted which you must do in order to smash an adversary before he smashes you. And as if Mr. Asquith were jealous of the laurels of Chancellor Bethmann-Hollweg, with his "scrap of paper," he declared in Parliament on Monday that England was not going to be prevented from working her will on her enemy by "judicial niceties." This is in line with the comment of the *London Morning Post*, that Great Britain is now throwing into the sea "the whole strangling web" of "judicial network." There can be no doubt what this means. The judicial niceties are the accepted principles of international law. The judicial network is a solemn international agreement—the Declaration of Paris—to which England set her hand and seal, but which she now proposes as coolly to violate as Germany violated her pledge to respect the neutrality of Belgium.

If we put the thing thus sharply it is partly because of the deep regret and disappointment caused by England's stooping to the level which Germany had previously reached—the level of nations that proclaim a necessity which knows no law. Till now the British had taken care not only to have a good cause, but to make it appear good in the eyes of the world. But such a frank repudiation of international law and of a treaty as the English Government to-day proposes, will go far to rob England of the moral superiority which she appeared to have at the beginning of the war. She can no longer make such play with the indiscreet avowals of the German Chancellor, for her own Prime Minister has placed himself in a class with him. We do not say that American statesmen would not have done the same, in Mr. Asquith's place, under the same plea of necessity. It is no time for any nation to plume itself pharisaically on not being as others are. But see what war does. It makes not only laws but morals of no effect. It eats into the very fibre of people and governments. Under stress of hostilities, they will do what in peace they would all call dishonorable in the highest

degree. Let not Americans think that they, if they went to war, could escape its fearful moral subversion and degeneracy.

Since the English Government admits that it is proceeding, or threatening to proceed, in a way unknown and repugnant to international law, it is needless to point out how the turning back of neutral ships, with no contraband on board, from an enemy's ports which have not been declared blockaded, would throw to the winds the precedents and rules of a hundred years. What is proposed is a leap into the dark backward of Berlin Decrees and Orders in Council. From that reign of terror at sea, it was supposed that the world had been securely delivered by the Declaration of Paris in 1856. It was subscribed to by Great Britain, France, Prussia, Austria, Russia, and several other nations. The United States did not sign, because the Declaration did not come up to the terms of the historic American contention that all private property at sea should be exempt from capture. But the Declaration did lay it down specifically that "the neutral flag covers enemy's goods, with the exception of contraband of war." It was in view of this and other agreements of the nations that Admiral Mahan wrote in his "Influence of Sea Power": "The principle that the flag covers the cargo is forever secure." But it is now openly flouted by the English Government.

This is a terrible fall, in point of lawfulness and of international right. The practical results may not prove so serious as many at present fear. The English statement implies great tenderness for neutrals. Their ships are to be treated considerately. They will not be "captured"; they will simply be "taken into port." There is no thought of confiscating them or their cargoes, if the latter contain no contraband. Moreover, the official announcement of the British Government does not say positively how or when its retaliatory measures will be put into effect. It merely states that the Allies will "hold themselves free" to stop all neutral shipping to and from Germany. This gives point to the inquiry which our Government is sending to England and France asking by what means their plans are to be carried out. Everything, as relates to the question of law, depends on that. If there is an effective blockade, we shall have nothing more to say. But if there is not, it is clear from Washington dispatches that our Government will have a great deal to say.

That this new war-complication forces a highly delicate and difficult question upon

the Washington Administration, as upon all neutral Powers, all must see. Thus far, the attitude towards it indicated by President Wilson is one with which all Americans must be satisfied. He is not startled out of calmness, nor betrayed into anything like bluster, but he is firm in upholding our rights under international law and the established rules of war. First, it is our duty to inquire in what way England intends to carry out her plans. If not by a blockade, the recognized and legitimate means, then it is for us to insist that no step be taken in derogation of neutral rights. When such a step is taken, it will be in order formally to present our grievances and our claims. The basis for damages by the *Alabama* would not be half so clear as that which the United States would have if England were to detain on the high seas American vessels innocent of contraband. The English Government might profess willingness to pay ample indemnities; but that could not make good the loss which it has already suffered, by its latest action, in the court of the opinion of mankind.

MISREPRESENTED NEUTRALITY.

The latest diplomatic notes sent by our Government to Germany and Great Britain have not yet been made public. Of this no just complaint can be made. A certain discretion and secrecy must be allowed to diplomacy, if we are to have such a thing at all. Whenever and so long as the chief purpose of a diplomatic correspondence would be defeated, or hindered, by publishing it, published it should not be. We can't do these things by popular vote. The psychology of the crowd we know something about; from the diplomacy of the crowd we have so far been delivered. Authorized agents must do that kind of public work; and the duty of outsiders is, as ex-President Taft said on Washington's Birthday, to trust the men we have chosen to do it, until we get convincing evidence that they are untrustworthy.

No one need have a fear, however, that the most recent communications from Washington to the British and German Governments will be found to contain any startling novelties. The Administration has no reason to depart from positions already taken. It has shown a just appreciation of the great fixed points of a truly neutral policy, and is not to be believed capable of hastily departing from them. It certainly should not be

influenced to do so by the fact that American neutrality has been misunderstood and misrepresented in both belligerent camps. That is, in reality, a pretty good sign that our Government has been strictly impartial. A military organ in Berlin speaks of President Wilson as "a vulture in a frock coat." Such a facility in metaphor is beyond most Englishmen, yet they have had many grumbling things to say of the self-interest and even the spirit of commercial greed which have actuated the Government of the United States in its course during the European war. When the returns are all in from Austria and Turkey, we shall doubtless find that we are roundly abused in those countries also. But such is the lot of neutrals, and such, we may add, is part of the proof that they have been neutral in the truest sense.

More important than the frequent assertion that America will soon be without a friend in any of the belligerent nations, is it to understand just what it is that the United States Government has undertaken. It has sought, first of all and naturally, to safeguard the interests of its own people and the dignity of its own country. This is what England and Germany are pleased to call selfish. So be it. A nation, like a man, must care first for those of the household. But there is something in the attitude of the United States Government since the outbreak of the war in Europe which runs far beyond our own borders. It is a service to the entire world that we have been endeavoring to do. For to uphold the rights of neutrals is to uphold the interests of the great majority of mankind. Not only for the time of the present war, but for the future conceptions and rules of war, is it of the highest importance that at least one powerful nation should be steadfast in the cause of neutrality. It is like the protection which in every civilized country it is sought to give to the "innocent bystander." In all wars, there are more innocent bystanders than there are men engaged in killing each other; and it would be a truly humane thing, a service world-wide in its scope and enduring in its nature, to exalt and bulwark the immunities of the nations that remain at peace.

Though no information has yet been given officially, it is well understood that the most recent diplomatic approaches of our Government to Berlin and London cover at least two matters. One of these is the aboli-

tion, by mutual consent of the belligerents, of "war zones," with their resultant sowing of the high seas with mines. If this could be accomplished, no man would contend that we had consulted an interest narrowly American. It would be a stroke in behalf of the trade of all the world, and of the liberty and safety of the ocean. As the case stands to-day, the menace is constant, and the multitudinous seas are being incarnadined with the blood of neutrals blown up by floating mines. For more than a year after the close of the war between Japan and Russia, we used to read of merchant vessels striking an errant mine in the waters of the China Sea. To put these devil's engines into the high seas is a horrid practice, excusable by no "you began it," between the belligerents. Condemned by the Hague Congress, it will be the more strongly condemned by future Hague Congresses if the mediating efforts of the United States shall lead England and Germany to agree to abandon it at once.

The other thing aimed at is the recognition of the rights of neutral commerce. This, again, is no self-centred national interest. It is a world-concern. In contending for the rights of American ships to traverse without let or hindrance the highways of ocean traffic, President Wilson is at the same time contending for the safety and freedom of the shipping of Holland and Denmark, Sweden and Norway, Italy and Spain. Those countries are, at all events, awake to the significance of the lead which the United States has taken. In our action they have heartily associated themselves. They do not sneer at American neutrality; for they see what it means. And there are gratifying signs that a better understanding of it is penetrating some darkened minds in our own country. Mr. Taft's high commendation of the policy of President Wilson, as it affects the European war, has wide echoes in the press. And one of the staunchest Republicans in the House, Representative Gillett of Massachusetts, affirmed last week that the President had steered the best possible course for this country. For the final verdict on it we must abide the decision of time; but we can already see that misunderstandings are being cleared up, and that misrepresentations are less and less heard. Honest and even-handed neutrality, on the part of the United States, is neither pro-English nor pro-German; it is pro-American and pro-humanity.

THE ALLIES AND THE DARDANELLES.

When Sir Edward Grey affirmed in the House of Commons last Thursday that Great Britain was in sympathy with Russia's aspirations in the Mediterranean, it is hard to escape the impression that he must have had earlier knowledge of the reduction of the Turkish forts at the mouth of the Dardanelles. It is also plain that Sir Edward had in mind the situation on the eastern battle-line. The recent Russian reverses were the reason for the British Foreign Minister's utterance, the prospect of Allied success in the Dardanelles was the occasion. Russia's sacrifices in the Allied cause have been so heavy, the Austro-German pressure on her armies at the present moment is so severe, it was apparently necessary to extend to Russia an official pledge of the reward that will be hers if she endures to the last. With the promise of Constantinople from her Allies, Russia will not only be spurred on to greater efforts, but she can face the tremendous German assault almost with equanimity. If peace is to be concluded on the basis of possession, and peace finds the Germans in possession of the larger part of Poland, Russia will have compensation elsewhere. Constantinople may be regarded as a good offset for Warsaw.

The conquest by the Allies of the highway between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean would be far-reaching in its political results, which in turn are bound to influence the military situation. The delicate balance in the Near East, and Italy, will respond to the new pull on the Allied side. But even the immediate results are of the highest importance. With Turkey split in two and her offensive power reduced to a minimum, the pressure on Russia in the Caucasus will be relieved. The safety of Egypt will have been secured. The large English forces in Egypt will be released for service elsewhere. To Russia there will be an immediate profit in the establishment of an important line of communications with her Allies in the Mediterranean. There is much talk of the outpour of Russian wheat when the Dardanelles are opened. But more important for the moment will be the inpour of munitions of war into Russia from the west. With her Arctic port frozen in, Russia at present can draw supplies only by way of Vladivostok, a roundabout way, considering how great are her needs of war material. German authorities have laid stress on Russia's enormous losses in guns and

munitions, and have predicted that long before her supply of men gives out, Russia will be in want of arms and equipment. The opening of the Dardanelles would change all that.

As yet, however, only the forts at the mouth of the Dardanelles have been silenced. The official report from London speaks of operations as proceeding. The Allied fleet has still to surmount the resistance of subsidiary fortifications strung along the entire length of the Straits, and the peril from mines, with which unquestionably the narrow waters are thickly sown. The task is not an insurmountable one. The restricted area of the mined waters is in favor of the Allies. It would seem to be a question of sending in torpedo boats and auxiliary craft to fine-comb the Dardanelles. In view of the large areas in the North Sea which British trawlers have been sweeping successfully for mines, the Straits, some forty miles long and four miles at the widest point, should offer a comparatively simple problem, provided such operations can be carried on without serious interference from the Turkish coast batteries. It is a task involving a fairly heavy price for the Allies. But the results to be obtained are of such primary importance that the Allies will gladly pay the cost.

Nor is it altogether impossible that the drive for Constantinople by way of the Dardanelles may witness the coöperation of an Allied army with the fleet. The European shore of the Dardanelles is formed by the peninsula of Gallipoli, which is not more than fifteen miles at its widest point and less than five miles at the isthmus between the Sea of Marmora and the Gulf of Xeros. It is conceivable that an Allied force landed on the west shores of the peninsula under the protection of naval guns in the Gulf of Xeros could threaten the Turkish shore batteries on the Dardanelles. A similar move was attempted in the course of the first Balkan war by a Bulgarian army which invaded Gallipoli. The Allied forces for such a campaign might be drawn from Egypt, where there must be close to 100,000 British troops, in large part made up of the Indian contingents which have given such a notable account of themselves in Flanders. At Bulair, in the neck of the Gallipoli peninsula, the Allied battleships could sweep the entire isthmus to the Sea of Marmora. Like the forcing of the Dardanelles by the ships alone, it would be a venture involving great risks, but worth while.

PERILS OF THE "PUNCH."

Granting the right to "get the punch" in the writing, and to emphasize the "salient features" of the case, respondents are still held to a responsibility to state the truth when they comment on the Court's proceedings in a pending case.

This is an extract from the opinion of Judge J. M. Killits, Federal Judge in the Northern District of Ohio, in the case of contempt of court by the *Toledo News-Bee*. A question of street-railway franchises had been taken into the Federal Court, and the newspaper in question had done a good deal of journalistic foaming at the mouth, in a way clearly to obstruct the course of justice, and to cast odium upon the Judge. Of him it made such amiable remarks as the following: "The rights of the people of Toledo will be placed in the hands of a two-legged human being who happens to be a Federal judge." "Nobody but the Judge himself can inspire public contempt of the court over which he happens to preside." "We prefer to give every judge free rein to make either a Solomon or a monkey of himself."

These utterances were obviously in the finest vein of the yellows. But when their author was brought into court, he made an inglorious defence. Instead of boldly standing up to the Judge, and letting him know that his place was very much lower and less privileged than that of the press, he disclaimed any intention whatever of reflecting on the court. Asked, thereupon, to explain his violent language, he declared that he had written it in a way that the common people would understand, and in such fashion as to have "punch." This plea in extenuation was so far taken into consideration by the Judge as to let the editorial writer off with a fine of \$200, Judge Killits rather cruelly remarking that the man had simply sold his pen to a corporation. The corporation itself, the newspaper company, will have to pay a fine of \$7,500 and costs, unless it can satisfy the court that its small circulation and profits make the sum excessive. Fancy a yellow journal admitting that! The very suggestion of it makes the punishment cruel and unusual. But there the case stands at last accounts. It is a vivid reminder of the perils that lurk in devotion to the "punch."

The plain truth is that the punch is rapidly going out of the punch. The word itself has been worked to weariness. It is thrust at one in connection with articles, plays, books, sermons, poems, operas, pic-

tures—every known means of human expression. Usually a note of physical force, almost of brutality, is heard in the word. Writer, preacher, dramatist, must do everything violently. Instead of speaking, one must shriek. Uttering an honest yea or nay will never do; the heavens must be made to echo with wild exaggerations; words must be set exploding like so many shells. The quiet power of under-statement must be abandoned in favor of the most tremendous superlatives that can be heaped up. We must have the queer, the weird, the bizarre, the exotic. The theory is that the public is not desirous of being amused or instructed, but wants to be startled, yelled at, bethumped with expletives, every nerve set jangling.

Such things do not stay with us long. The very fact that they are of the nature of narcotics indicates their fate. Their dose must constantly be increased, or they will fail of effect. So we may expect the "punch" soon to be discarded as too pale and faded a word. What will come next, Heaven it knoweth. It may be that a writer or artist will be unworthy of notice unless he has the "knockout." Anyhow, it will be something brutal, shocking, explosive. It was all very well for the Greeks to perceive strength in restraint, for the great lights of English literature to see naught in over-plus, for Emerson to warn against racking language till it was torn apart. All that is past. Those exemplars and advisers are all dead. The living present wants to have its ear-drums pierced, and information and artistic thrill conveyed to it with a bludgeon.

So appear to think the young lions—the very young lions—of the press, as also the aspiring hewers out of literature with an axe, and the painters who throw whole pots of color on their canvas. It might seem, indeed, as if the violent were about to take by storm the kingdom of art and letters. But they are not. These rages will pass. They are but the fashion of a day. Out of the very excess of "punch" will be created a desire for the artistic touch that is skilful and velvet-like. Lincoln's style will not be dethroned by Jack London's. The saying of what a man has to say in clear straight speech, without grimaces and contortions, will be esteemed a virtue. Writing in the earthquake and hurricane mode will seem cheap and tiresome compared with that in which the still small voice carries great and enduring truth to the heart of man.

Chronicle of the War

Events in other areas of the war have been dwarfed by comparison with the importance of the attack on the Dardanelles by a combined British and French fleet, under the command of Vice-Admiral Carden. Apart from the consequences, military and political, which a successful outcome to this attack may be expected to produce, the operations themselves are among the few spectacular incidents of the war. The fleet, so far as is known, consists of some forty vessels, headed by the new British superdreadnought Queen Elizabeth, armed with fifteen-inch guns which can throw a projectile weighing a ton a distance of more than twenty miles, and among these vessels are included every unit that has come into use in modern naval warfare. The fire of the guns is directed by sea-planes, which start from and return to a parent vessel accompanying the fleet, and as the levelling of the forts one by one is accomplished, mine-sweepers clear the way for the next step in the slow progress of the battleships and cruisers up the straits. The bombardment of the four forts guarding the entrance, begun on February 19, was discontinued on account of storms, but was resumed on February 25, when these forts were reduced. Subsequently they were demolished by landing parties, and in the wake of the mine-sweepers the battleships proceeded to the attack of the inner forts. Fort Dardanos, twelve miles up the straits, on the Asiatic side, is unofficially reported to have been destroyed, and the official report of the British Admiralty on Monday stated that the fleet had reached the lighthouse near Fort Kilid Bahr. Operations, however, were afterwards suspended on account of bad weather.

To force the passage of the Dardanelles, if that be possible, is so obvious a stratagem, and would lead so obviously to consequences immensely favorable to the Allies, that the question has been freely asked why the attempt has not been made before. One reason is equally obvious. So long as the Turkish menace to the Suez Canal and Egypt remained, the powerful battleships could not be spared from their watch on the canal. With the breaking of the army assembled for the invasion of Egypt and its retreat from the Sinai peninsula, the danger for the canal has passed, for the present at least, and the ships are freed for service elsewhere. But we may presume that not only the ships are freed, but also some of the land forces that repelled the Turkish invasion. Mr. Asquith stated in the House of Commons on Monday that there had been no impairment of strength of the Allies in France and Flanders as a result of withdrawals of men for service in the campaign against Turkey. This statement would seem to give ample confirmation to speculations that at once occurred as to whether it was contemplated to support the attack of the fleet by operations on land, and would lead to the supposition that troops have been withdrawn from Egypt for the purpose. Under protection of the guns of the fleet it would be possible to land troops at several points on both the Asiatic and the European sides. The task of the Allies, however, is not to be underrated. The narrows at Nagara, flanked on either side by powerful forts, present a formidable obstacle to overcome, and already it is reported from

Athens that Essad Pasha has been placed in command at Gallipoli, whither doubtless reinforcements are being hurried to repel a possible landing force on the Ægean side of the peninsula.

There have been indications during the past week of a recrudescence of activity in the western fighting line. Following on reports of considerable progress by the French in the Champagne district, where a slow but steady advance was recorded from day to day, there were rumors from Holland of a movement of considerable numbers of German troops to the western front; and on Sunday came the announcement from Berlin of the success of a sudden attack in French Lorraine on the line Verdun-Bremeril, east of Badonviller, where over a front of some thirteen miles the French were pushed back a distance of four miles. In the East the Russians appear to be upholding their traditions of following up defeat by victory. German and Russian accounts both agree as to the subsidence of the German offensive in Poland north of the Vistula. The apex of German success appears to have been reached on February 24, when Przasnysz was occupied. Simultaneously with that event, however, the Russians had inaugurated a vigorous offensive on the line of the Orzec River. A desperate battle ensued, which resulted in favor of the Russians, the Germans being swept back on the line of their previous advance towards Mlawa and Khorzele. Przasnysz only remained one day in German hands. According to the Russian account, the German retreat in this quarter was disorderly, and 10,000 prisoners, as well as considerable quantities of stores, guns, and ammunition, have been captured. At the other end of the long line, in Bukowina, reports indicate that the Russians are again creeping forward.

Foreign Correspondence

PROBABILITY OF ITALIAN INTERVENTION—THE WORK OF VON BUELOW—SIGNOR SALANDRA'S TRUMP CARD.

ROME, February 9.

Has Prince von Bülow's mission to Rome been a failure? Although the question is much discussed in Italy, those who render judgment are themselves ignorant of exactly what Germany hoped to obtain by this mission. Certainly Bülow knows Italy too well to have expected to persuade her to an early participation in the war in Germany's aid; nor can he have really hoped with promises of future territorial compensation to obtain pledges of permanent neutrality. But we may conclude that, aside from these positive objects, his Government sent him to delay with every possible means, if he was unable to prevent, Italy's active espousal of the cause of the Allies; and in the fulfilment of this mission he has shown unmistakable zeal. That he appreciates the danger as imminent is indicated by the recent activity of Germans resident in Italy—they number over seventy thousand—in transferring their property to the names of citizens of other countries. The most noteworthy case is that of the Banca Commerciale Italiana, whose directors were for the most part Germans; of these the resignation of the greater number in a body has just been announced. Growing German appreciation of danger from Italy

is further shown by the attitude of hostility towards this country which the German press has begun to assume. On the other hand, increasing sums of German money are being expended in Italy, in order to alter the attitude of the press here. It is reported that one paper alone has received 2,500,000 francs; that 25,000 francs has been paid to another for a single article; that 40,000 francs has been paid to a celebrated authoress. Proof of the amounts is, of course, wanting, but the fact of subvention is clearly revealed by abrupt changes in the tone of certain newspapers; in one case the compositors revolted against the editor because articles were dictated by the German Consul. Indeed, such is the feeling against Austrian and German Consuls on the part of many Italians that the consulates of these two Powers in all the Italian cities are constantly guarded against assault by pickets of Italian police.

To the Germans resident in Italy the earthquake of January 13 caused immense satisfaction. They declared, as a representative German said to the writer of this article: "We are very glad of the disaster. It will serve as a cold douche to the Italians. It will do them good." But, in fact, the earthquake has had absolutely no influence upon Italy's foreign policy. The Italians have met their new calamity with much courage and stoicism, and it has already been forgotten as a possible political factor.

The Government in Rome of necessity continues to maintain its mute official attitude, but Sonnino, Minister of Foreign Affairs, is privately known to believe that permanent neutrality would mean Italy's ruin. Military preparations are being continued with the greatest vigor; the country is now ready for war, but each week that passes means that she is still better prepared. It must not be thought, however, that all Italians want to fight. Many, from financial reasons, or from family connections with Germany, or from fear, join the official Socialists in the propaganda for permanent neutrality. The hopes of gaining territory in the end by gift from Austria, without first bearing the burdens of war, strongly appeal to the weaker, who fail to consider the consequent position of international isolation in which Italy, even though these hopes were gratified, would in the future be placed. Bülow has artfully fostered these desires of the timid, although their fallacies are daily exposed by the patriotic Italian press.

The numbers of the neutralists are also swelled by the manufacturers in the north of Italy who are becoming enriched in furnishing supplies to the belligerents on both sides. This commerce is, however, well controlled by the Italian Government, and the British Embassy in Rome professes itself satisfied to-day—as it was far from being in October—with the Italian Government's measures preventing the export of contraband. It is significant that manufacturers have been forbidden by the Roman authorities to supply certain war material to belligerent Germany, while they have been allowed to furnish the same in large quantities to neutral Rumania. While this is but in accordance with the provisions of international law, it happens also to coincide fully with the sympathies and policy of the Government. Recent Italian diplomatic efforts in the Balkans have been fruitful. Between Italy and Rumania there is a complete diplomatic understanding, but not as yet a full military understanding. Both

countries are anxiously watching the progress of events in Austria, and the action of both must be largely determined by events there. At the present moment it is believed here that Rumania will go into action first, as she would move in conjunction with a Russian army in Bukovina. Italy would then be expected to go into action immediately afterwards. As a Rumanian statesman put it, Rumania must be content to play the pilot engine to the Italian armored train. But Italy would prefer to delay intervention. Considerable fear is expressed lest, in case of war south of the Alps before the winter ends, Germany should throw overwhelming forces on the Austro-Italian frontier; furthermore the possibility of a German invasion through Switzerland at a point where Italy is not fortified is also seriously considered.

The greatest danger which threatens to prevent the execution of Italy's plans for intervention is that of petty party intrigue in Parliament. The followers of Giolitti are, many of them, thoroughly unscrupulous politicians who would not hesitate to sacrifice the interests of the country, even at such a critical moment as this, to their own personal advantage. They have been plotting actively during the past weeks against the Salandra Government, and have been abetted by Bülow. But Salandra is not worried over the situation, and it is believed in governmental circles that the King has given him authority to dissolve Parliament in case of an unfavorable vote, and to appeal to the country. The simple threat of this procedure should be enough to check hostile Deputies, few of whom would willingly face the expense, trouble, and uncertainties of a new election. It is to be noted also that Salandra has the support of the three most influential newspapers in Italy, all of which have also pronounced themselves favorable to Italian intervention: the *Corriere della Sera* and the *Secolo*, of Milan, and the *Giornale d'Italia*, of Rome.

X.

JERUSALEM IN THE JIHAD—THE TEUTONIZED TURK—"HAJJI MOHAMMED GILYON."

CAIRO, February 2.

The writer arrived in Syria last July with the purpose of taking up his duties as Director of the American School of Oriental Research in Jerusalem. My mission either as teacher or archaeologist has proved abortive, and I can only boast that I stuck to my post until the Consul ordered me out, and kept the school open for three months, when the other institutions of like character—for instance, the German Archaeological Institute and the school connected with the Dominican Fathers—had either not opened or were closed by the Government.

My compensation is that I had the rare chance of witnessing, for a while, one of the greatest crises in the history of Turkey and of Islam. To all appearance it is the most crucial epoch of Muslim history since the Crusades, as all signs witness to the truth of Asquith's assertion that this is the end of Turkey. And with her would disappear Islam as an independent political factor.

Despite the protests of many friends, my family and I took our way to Jerusalem for the school term, and arrived there on September 28. Jerusalem is a striking instance of a polity of religions. The actual resident

Turks number less than a hundred. The Muslims live on most amicable terms with the Christians. The largest element, the Jews, perhaps 70,000 in number, are in the great majority favorable to the Allies. It is only from the English or French that their Zionistic ambitions can expect any satisfaction; they do not relish German anti-Semitism. Despite the similarity of religions, there is no love between them and the Muslims, who are now indeed wreaking their vengeance upon them in all kinds of persecution. In fact, the present enormous colonization of Jews in Palestine is against Turkish law. The result is that Palestinian Judaism looks for the protection of the Christian Powers—from which Germany has excluded herself in its eyes since her alliance with the oppressor of the Jews. As for the Christians, all, both the natives, the largest body of whom is the Greek Church, and the innumerable foreign ecclesiastical bodies, are "against the Government," with the exception of the large German colony and the few natives dependent upon them. That is, the great majority of the population desires the advent of the English and French flags, and from what I have learned this would not be unwelcome to a large number, if not the majority, of the Muslims.

Apart from these political and religious prepossessions there is the tremendous economical distress growing out of the Turkish mobilization, which began with the outbreak of the European war. All the men have been drafted into the army, and even those who have paid the exemption (about \$200) have been compelled to join the colors, while there are cases where men have paid the exemption twice and then been forced to serve. All horses available for military purposes have been seized, and the Beduin for the first time in history have had to give large quotas of camels, to be used in the expedition against Egypt. Food supplies have been in general commandeered, and the large grain dealers are ruined. The merchants and shopkeepers in Jerusalem were forced to surrender large percentages of their goods and to pay arbitrarily computed sums of money, on pain of having their shops closed.

This distress was only the more increased by the rupture between Turkey and the Allies at the end of October. Universal impressment was then ordered, and the confiscation of supplies proceeded to the limit. It is little wonder that the long-delayed declaration of war on the part of the Government was received with no applause. It was only an aggravation of the day's work for which the poor man should pay the price in blood and subsistence. Further, the complete stoppage of trade, internal and external, has brought the country to the verge of starvation.

There are two or three subjects to which I would give special attention. In the first place, I am glad to commend the Turkish authorities for the excellent order they kept. The officials in Jerusalem were an exceptional lot of men—too good, and so proportionately suspected by the Turco-German régime. Though Jerusalem was one of the centres of the proposed campaign against Egypt, with a large garrison and new troopspassing through it constantly, there was no disorder at all. The ill-treatment of the hostile aliens was done under the authority of orders from those "higher up," but with no personal indignity

or popular excitement against them. These conditions, however, did not exist in the smaller cities. A sad chapter is to be written on the abominable treatment of the Jewish refugees at Jaffa, while at many points the native Protestant pastors and laymen have been jailed or sent as prisoners to Damascus. The German residents are said to have stimulated this ill-treatment; whether this be so or not, the German Consuls and pastors have done nothing to mitigate the conditions of their fellow-Christians. Just to-day I hear that conditions have turned for the worse in Jerusalem as Kurdish soldiers have been brought in.

The treatment accorded to the hostile aliens since the outbreak of the war would be peculiar if it did not tally with the current German disregard of international ethics. These foreigners were viewed from the first as prisoners of war and held as hostages. I can only suppose that the Turks were expecting the English and French to follow German practice and so were providing for reprisals. This barbarous treatment was forestalled—so I learn from an authoritative source in Cairo—by a curt notification from England that she possessed a full list of all the high Turkish officials in Syria who would hang for it if they took a "hostage's" life. In defiance of the law of nations the Consuls of England, France, and Russia were all made prisoners and held so for some time. The English Consul was finally released through the efforts of our Consul, Dr. Glazebrook. The Russian Consul and his family were dispatched as prisoners to the north, but we heard later that they were sent out of the country via Beirut. We were very glad to hear that the commander of an American man-of-war took off the British Consul at Beirut in face of the protests of the police.

The commandeering of the French and English schools, hospitals, and churches was an especially harsh and extraordinary measure, the more so in Jerusalem, where there is profound respect for the religious people. In fact, the Turks allowed the English to keep up their church services until they left the country. These buildings were taken ostensibly for barracks, storehouses, and military hospitals, but the Government had more of them on hand than they knew what to do with. The Assumptionist Convent of Notre Dame was converted into a hotel for the German officers. The beautiful and venerable Church of St. Ann and its buildings were seized and occupied by soldiers. I think this is the first case since the time of the Crusades that the holy buildings of Christians have been profaned by the Muslim Government.

In matter of fact, this unusual treatment of the hostile aliens and their institutions is foreign to the practice of the Turkish Government. In the late Balkan war the Greeks were not touched, and in the Italian war there was no oppression of the hostile subjects; they were all given time to leave the country. I have no particular liking for the Turkish Government, but I acquit it of prime responsibility for these outrages. They are to be ascribed to the evil German cabal in Constantinople which is set upon driving through its policy of terrorism even in defiance of Oriental sentiment. Even the soldiers quartered in St. Ann's asked to be sent elsewhere, as they were having bad dreams! It is most pathetic that just at this time when, with the abrogation of the capitulations, Turkey was honestly desirous of tak-

ing her place in the world as a civilized nation, she had to learn her lessons from an unscrupulous Christian state.

To an Oriental student the proclamation of the *Jihād* or Holy War was the most interesting event of all. This occurred in the latter part of November. So much is going on over the world that I suppose our American newspapers had little space for what would normally be an extraordinary event. For has a *Jihād* been proclaimed since the Crusades? The terms of the *Fetwa*, or decree, are in the antique style of questions to the Sheikh-ul-Islam and his responses. The conditions are presented to him and he is asked to give a categorical *yes* or *no*. It was, I confess it, a little staggering to read the blunt terms of the pronouncement while being in a land under Islamic authority. It directs the *killing* of all the enemies of the religion without distinction and the seizing of their goods, with similar penalty for all the faithful who refuse to obey the summons. To be sure, only the Russians, French, and English were named as the enemies of the religion, but one had the uncanny feeling that Fellahin and Beduin might not easily distinguish among the Christian nationalities.

As it turned out, there was nothing to fear from this stroke of German diplomacy, the appeal to the religious rancor of Islam. I speak for what I know of only, but I believe the same observation can be made for the whole Muslim world. Those who felt it most were the native Christians, who feared a universal massacre. Even the German sympathizers among the natives were frightened, and one strong Germanizer, of the German mission, confessed that with a *Jihād* in prospect he hoped the English would come in soon. The Germans themselves in Jerusalem, mostly a religious folk, felt uncomfortable under the move, and both perceived the danger of the situation and disliked the alliance of German piety and Mohammedanism. The presence of the German Consul at a celebration of the *Jihād* in the Mosque was reprobated; the Austrian Consul had the good sense to refrain from going. In Damascus the German Consul attended a similar festival in the Mosque, and harangued the people, all of which caused high dudgeon to the Muslims, since to their pious minds a Christian had no part or parcel in a Holy War. This is typical of the absurdity of the present *Jihād*, which is patent to the Muslim mind. The *Jihād* is vitiated from the very first, as the doctors of Islam know that it is not a war in defence of their religion, but one waged in political combination with two Christian Powers, and primarily to help one set of Christians against another. This legal aspect has already been presented in utterances of doctors of the law in various lands outside of Turkish control. And apart from legalistic criticism, the *Jihād* has fallen flat. The masses are astute enough to recognize the purely political motives behind it, and in any case have no temper for it. This might be explained as a sign of the decadence of Islam. But it would take more than such evidence to prove this assumption. I should be inclined to attribute the present antipathy to a *Jihād* to a change in the spirit of Islam. The religion of Mohammed has become humanized; a change has passed over it similar to that which makes it impossible for the Christendom of to-day to unite in a crusade against the infidels.

To be sure, there has been an effort in

Turkey, under German auspices, to arouse the ancient Berserker rage. In token of this desire the Kaiser has presented rich offerings at the tomb of Saladin, the conqueror of Christian Jerusalem. Notwithstanding this artificial stimulus, the *Jihād* has proved a failure. Two attempts were made in Jerusalem to revive the ancient spirit. On November 19 the authorities ordered all Muslims to close their shops and repair to the Mosque for prayer in behalf of the Holy War. This produced not a ripple of excitement. One merely heard that it had happened. On December 20 a great gala day was ordered. The sacred banner was to be brought from Mecca and conducted in solemn procession to the Mosque, where an enthusiastic convocation was to be held. Well, it was a great day in Jerusalem. There were Sheikhs and Turkish soldiers, and German generals, and the Austrian Consul (the German Consul went to church this time), and a Sheikh of the Sherifate family from Mecca, and everybody, Muslims, Jews, Christians, hostile aliens, turned out to see the sight. The banner was an ugly modern creation, brand new; the antique consisted in the flagpole, which is said to have come from the Prophet's tomb at Medina. The procession proceeded to the great area of the Haram, and my friend, Prof. Kemper Fullerton, and I climbed the Mount of Olives, which gives a fine view of the sanctuary, to witness the ceremonies. But a great storm broke, and the procession petered out before it reached the Mosque; only some thin files of schoolboys appeared on the scene. The next day the Sheikh from Mecca died.

A great deal of capital has been made of the Kaiser, who has always been an imposing figure to the Orient, which does not love the commonplace. Through processes I know not, a considerable mythology has grown up about his person. He is known as Hajji Mohammed Gilyon, the first term indicating that he has made the pilgrimages to Mecca, the second that he is a descendant of Mohammed, the third representing his real name through the French Guillaume—though *Gilyon* in Arabic means a tobacco-pipe. There is one story that became current, which is a sample of the humors possible to a serious atmosphere. It tells how the Empress Frederick appeared in a dream to her son, the present Kaiser, and informed him that his pro-Islamic sympathies were not surprising; that before her marriage with his reputed father, she had been the wife of the father of the present Sultan, of which union he was the offspring, so that he was own brother of the Turkish monarch.

I cannot close this letter without a tribute to the American Consul in Jerusalem, Dr. Glazebrook. He carried out the delicate and difficult task of protecting the English under his care with consummate skill; even the French and Russians, although under other protection, came to him for help. He was a father to the Jewish community, and through his endeavors saved from confiscation a large sum of money that had been sent them from America. It was due to him that the English missionaries and teachers were saved from being deported into the interior, and his is the credit for getting a large number of them out of the country on December 26, when, through extraordinary tact and patience, he overcame the reluctance of the brutal Governor of Jaffa to let them go. It was a dramatic scene which none of us will ever forget.

JAMES A. MONTGOMERY.

Essential France

By STODDARD DEWEY.

[This is the second of four articles on contemporary France which Mr. Dewey is contributing to the *Nation*. The first appeared in the issue of February 11.]

PARIS, February 3.

France, as it appears to Americans, has shown up magnificently in the war and indicates that it possesses certain underlying qualities and forces which the average foreigner would hardly have suspected.

A like note of wonder echoes in friendly English, and even in hostile German, appreciations. Italian and Spanish and what may be called Latin opinion naturally shows less surprise.

If the French now quit themselves like men, it must be that they were beforehand in possession of the qualities and forces of men. Even social science supposes that antecedents and consequents in communities of men follow each other by some universal law, just as water does not flow higher than its source. Moreover, if there is one lesson that John Stuart Mill has succeeded in teaching, it is this: all our social science—which can never be more than an intelligent, sufficient, and classified accounting for human acts done in common—will be of practical utility only as it is kept within the bounds of observation and experiment. Go beyond this, and we have a dangerous *a priori* Socialism, or—as the events of this war have proved—a still more dangerous culture of organization and efficiency, equally heedless of the rights of the individual as against the community or society or the state, and of the rights of one people against the might of another. In culture of this kind there is no doubt the French have shown themselves wanting.

The essential ideal of the French people does not go beyond their own practice, and, with them as with all others, the people is not altogether the same as the organized nation. Until lately their ideal has been accepted by all European races as Civilization simply, or the proper living together of citizens—*cives*—in one community. This does not cover the entire physical possibilities of communities or nations of men, for it takes account of men's moral and essentially humane qualities which limit such possibilities. In these is the underlying force of France, as this war is also proving.

With her revolutionary Rights of Man as an individual, France stands essentially with the Christianity which lays stress on the salvation of the individual soul, and with the English and Colonial Bills of Rights that bred in Americans their will for liberty of both citizens and nationalities. "I had rather see England drunken and free than sober and enslaved," was a Church of England bishop's paradox. "We made the Revolution, not to have an efficient Government, but a free Government," was George Washington's answer to a Philadelphia friend who complained that the Constitution of the new

United States worked badly. And, in the present juncture, some Americans remember that their Declaration of Independence demands a certain consent of governed individuals as indispensable to legitimate action of government.

The French people constituted as a nation may not realize either English or American ideas of Liberty, except where Liberty is identified with Equality. But their third Revolutionary virtue—Fraternity—however blasphemed and violated in times of peace, has always underlain the life of France essentially. A singularity of French armies has always been the easy fraternizing of officers and men. So, too, for social differences, a mechanic now fighting in the trenches gives the essential note: "We are here a marquis and day laborers and shop-clerks and a millionaire, all living together like brothers."

If, instead of abstractions worked out in advance, we keep to the sane Pragmatism of classifying and using as pegs on which to hang our thoughts only things actually seen and known, we may find two essential qualities in the French. The first is their *esprit de corps*, or spontaneous association with their kind wherever they chance to be. This leads to the peculiar army discipline which so surprises foreign worshippers of mere physical efficiency. The second is their spirit of orderliness and moderation in using the things of life, of which French conventionality and French savings are well-known examples. These ingrained habits of body as well as mind have all the force of heredity, if there is such a thing; and, what is more important, they have the acquired strength of second nature developed by education and environment from infancy to age. That is, besides universal human nature, French human nature has these qualities essentially, and all the strength they imply.

I do not know when it was first said that every Frenchman is all his life long a slave to one of three women—his mother, his wife, or his daughter. I do know that the French family is an enclosed community, into which the first-comer from the outside is not allowed to penetrate freely. It is not the half-Oriental seclusion of women still seen among the Spanish; but it is exclusive to a degree unknown in the English, or in the still more open American, "home."

The "solidarity" of the French family is yet more extreme. The best example is found in French business life. After years of experience, the foreigner begins to appreciate the sacredness, which is almost a superstition, of the "signature." The debt which is signed for is not lightly left unpaid; and, as the honor of the signer is involved, it constantly happens that a whole family sacrifices the well-being of all its members to keep intact the credit of one. Something of the same kind, but less acceptable to American ideas, occurs when the marriage prospects of the daughters of a family are sacrificed to providing a worldly position for the son.

In such cases, what I have called the first essential quality of the genus Man, species

French—its patient union with its kind—often has to struggle against the second—routine and economy. And often it overcomes, as it is doing in this war. For the solidarity which starts from the family as the social unit grows ever widening until it embraces the whole French people and nation. The man who pays the debts of a brother for his signature's sake is also inclined to act comrade-fashion with *mon pays* "my townsman," and with those of the same province, as the *méridionaux* scattered through Paris do, or with all brother-Frenchmen when the singing of the Marseillaise is in order:

Allons, enfants de la patrie!
Français, en guerriers magnanimes
Portez ou retenez vos coups!

It is a pity that foreigners did not understand this force of French solidarity before beginning a war so offensive to the entire race. Only a few years before, they had been vituperating the Nationalism of the French, which they first distorted and then exaggerated. Perhaps the mistake has arisen from their university professors' overmuch erudition concerning the origin of what I have called the second essential quality of the French, but which they identify with the "rapacity" of the French peasant. Which ever nation may gain the final victory in this war, their invincible science has here met certain defeat.

In this quality of moderation and saving—"When you have four sous, spend only two!"—there is yet again unexpected strength for war. "I don't like people so stingy that they won't eat a proper breakfast," was the complaint of a newly-arrived American art-student in Paris. French soldiers, unlike certain others in history, have proved themselves capable of fighting without any breakfast at all. By virtue of just such moderation and resignation—*puisqu'il le faut*—and by their inbred spirit of association and routine, they adapt themselves to the discomforts of a war which has become a painful siege three hundred miles long. We are far from the time when it was taken for granted that a French army could not hold out except with rapid and frequent successes, and with its red breeches leaping madly to the bugle's inspiring strain.

Amid the chorus of reprobation of France as a military Power after 1870, Henry Reeve, who was himself too severe a censor, raised his conscientious voice:

I confess that I am still one of those who hold that the effort made by France to carry on the war for five months longer, though the result was disastrous, is the one fact which in some degree redeems the honor of the nation. She displayed at least a certain amount of moral energy and physical vigor in that part of the contest; not enough to save her from defeat, but enough to wipe out a portion of the stain on her national character and her honor. . . . The reluctance with which she was brought to submit to an oppressive and humiliating peace was the last proof she could give that something of her long greatness still remained in the hearts of her people.

The French effort—unbroken until now—to recover from defeat shows how scantily this expressed the truth even then. The heavy war indemnity imposed on the French people was paid before its time. An American editor was shocked into asking: "Where did the French get all this money?" Bismarck is reported to have said that, if he had known, he would have demanded an indemnity three times greater. Soon he took alarm—it was commonly thought, at the remaking of a strong French military force. More likely, it was at the reconstruction of a whole nation into a country sufficient to itself—something which he had not foreseen in his calculations.

I cannot consider here, either for praise or blame, those who were conducting the nation in those fruitful years. It is the French people who have themselves rebuilt their national force by the spontaneous operation of their essential qualities.

Within twenty years, by intensive cultivation of their land, they increased French production of wheat one-third, and so on for the rest of their agriculture. A great part of the strength of France in the present war has come from her native supplies, having thus become regularly sufficient to her own needs. French industries, which are largely concerned with the world's luxuries, have also made steady progress—perhaps as much as the world's advance in luxury permits. They have not needed the noise accompanying the rise of more popular and *parvenu* fabrication; and so outsiders have not been alive to their real growth. The direct foreign commerce of France, like American shipping, may have lagged; but the advance of French industry has been immensely increased by a comparatively unnoticed development of domestic trade. This, too, is due to the continued operation of essential qualities of the French people.

Before their war, Bismarck and Moltke despised France as the home of cooks and dressmakers. Well, the same painstaking and taste of the French people have so turned the tourist tide towards France that foreign gold flows in with it to the amount of more than three-fifths of the nation's yearly expenses. The saving habits of Frenchmen have also made them creditors of all nations—since they lend their money to all—and debtors of none. Germany herself, with all her people's qualities, has been built up for a good part on French gold.

Bismarck took alarm too late. After unsuccessful menaces of another war, he fell back on diplomacy and induced England to turn over Tunis, with the further prospect of Morocco, to France. He encouraged all efforts of France to encumber herself with an unwieldy colonial empire. This, too, has turned against his plans, and still more against those of his successors. Even French Anarchists have taken for the essential symbol of their social effort the *Ruche*, or "Beehive." In Morocco, as a single example, the growth of agriculture under peace secured by the French shows how the bees are working. Outsiders have persisted

in looking at everything but this essential France. And now they are surprised by the French people unitedly and patiently resisting attack.

The rise of Syndicalism and the transformation, rather than rise, of sport in France are other profitable instances of qualities essentially French operating steadily without foreigners heeding or understanding. In 1904, when Syndicalists had already won to themselves 400,000 out of 4,000,000 French workmen, the foreign press still ignored their existence. Now that their further progress has been stayed by equally spontaneous popular movements, foreigners still exaggerate their power against society. Henry James, who has not been accused of naïveté, said after his little tour in France years ago: "I wondered whether a change had not come over the spirit of the people!"

Book Notes and Byways

"DOUGH-FACES."

THE OCCASION UPON WHICH JOHN RANDOLPH COINED THIS PHRASE AND A DISCUSSION OF ITS SOURCE AND MEANING.

In a general way, it is well known that John Randolph gave currency to the phrase "dough-faces" in the debate on the Missouri Compromise, but it has not been pointed out upon what particular occasion the phrase was coined, nor has there been much discussion of its source and meaning. In the first session of the Sixteenth Congress the Senate passed a House bill for the admission of Maine, coupling with it an enabling act for Missouri, without restriction as to slavery, but with the Thomas proviso that in the remaining territory acquired from France north of 36 degrees 30 minutes slavery should be prohibited. The House rejected the Senate union of the Maine and Missouri bills, and on February 29, 1820, by a vote of 96 to 84, passed a Missouri bill of its own, with the Taylor amendment prohibiting slavery in the proposed State. A conference committee recommended that the Senate recede from the union of the two bills, and that the House drop the Taylor amendment prohibiting slavery in Missouri, and substitute the Thomas proviso prohibiting slavery in the territory north and west of the State. On March 2 the House struck out the Taylor amendment by a vote of 90 to 87, a majority of three. This reversal of policy was effected by the defection of seven Northern members, of whom four changed their votes and three absented themselves. In all, fifteen Northern members voted to strike out the prohibition of slavery in Missouri, who, with the three absentees, made a total of eighteen Northern men who helped the South to carry the Missouri Compromise. It was these men that Randolph stigmatized as "dough-faces."

Randolph frantically opposed both the Taylor and the Thomas amendments upon the ground that no condition of any sort could be imposed upon the admission of a State. The *Providence American* for March 10 printed the following as part of an unsigned letter from Washington, dated March 1:

Randolph has spoken whenever he could gain the floor, and has been repeatedly called to order by the members of his own party. . . . His speeches have sometimes been diverting, always very personal and impudent, never argumentative, and seldom have anything to do with the subject under consideration.

The Annals of Congress note Randolph's successive speeches. On February 26 he "spoke four hours against the amendment and on topics connected with it." On February 28 he spoke four times, and when he closed Lowndes proposed a rule to exclude from debate any member who should not confine himself to the subject under discussion. On February 29 he "spoke a short time against the amendment," and later in the day "stated much at large the reasons why he should vote against the compromise." On March 1 he "spoke more than three hours against the passage of the bill," and on the following day the bill passed. The next morning, the 3d, Randolph moved a reconsideration, a motion which Clay ruled out of order, until the ordinary business of the House was disposed of, during which he sent the bill to the Senate. Upon a further report of the conference committee on the Maine bill, Randolph "moved that the bill be indefinitely postponed, and proceeded at considerable length to offer his reasons for wishing to prevent its passage." Later in the day he moved to censure the clerk for taking the Missouri bill to the Senate, and to expunge the rule for reconsideration, and discussed Lowndes's proposed rule for limiting the range of debate. None of Randolph's speeches were reported, either because they were not thought to be worth reporting, or because he was on bad terms with Gales and Seaton, whom, later in March, when they did report one of his speeches, he tried to exclude from the House. The expressions that he used must therefore be gathered from sources other than the Annals of Congress.

Thornton's "American Glossary" cites two contemporary notices of Randolph's speeches. The first was printed in the *Massachusetts Spy* for March 22, 1820, and purports to have been taken from the *Rhode Island American*. A careful search through the issues of the *American* failed to locate the item, but it may have been overlooked. It reads as follows:

Letters from Washington say that all the Southern members despise the miserable submission of those members from the North who voted with them on the Missouri question. They love the *treason*, but hate the *traitor*. Randolph stung them even in debate for their desertion. They writhed under the lash of the scorpion. He said "they got scared. They saw their dough-faces in the glass, and were frightened, and voted against restriction, and gave us (the Southern members) a majority of three."

A second notice reprinted in the *Spy* for April 19, from the issue of the *New Brunswick Times* for the 13th of that month, is as follows:

John Randolph spoke *five days* on the Missouri Question—and "Indian Arrow" was aimed at all sides. At the close of the debate, after ridiculing the *compromise*, he said in allusion to the *seceders*:

"I knew *these would give way*. They were scared at their own dough faces—yes, were scared at their own dough faces! We had *them*, and if we had wanted *three* more, we could have had them; yes, and if *these* had failed, we could have had three more of these men, whose conscience, and morality, and

religion, extend to thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes north latitude. You can never find any difficulty in obtaining the support of men whose principles of morality and religion are bounded by thirty-six degrees and thirty minutes north latitude!"

A part of the speech given in this notice is quoted, with some variations, in Bartlett's "Dictionary of Americanisms." From the content of the two reports, it is clear that the speech in which Randolph coined the famous phrase was made March 3, 1820, the day after the House struck out the prohibition of slavery in Missouri by a majority of three. It was probably to be found in his speech upon the report of the conference committee on the Maine bill, in which "he proceeded at considerable length to offer his reasons for wishing to prevent its passage."

The question of the source and precise meaning of Randolph's phrase is more difficult. In 1856 Rev. George Bradburn in a political speech, printed in part in the "Memorial" prepared by his wife, said: "Randolph spelled the word d-o-e face, in allusion to the timid startled look of that animal, which is said to shrink from the reflection of its own face in the water," and Norton accepts this explanation as authoritative in his "Political Americanisms." Randolph's statement, "They saw their own dough faces in the glass, and were frightened," gives some color to this interpretation, but the uniform spelling d-o-u-g-h face in the contemporary newspapers militates strongly against it. In some localities in the South and in some Western States, settled in part from the South, it is the custom for children to play ghost by dressing up in sheets and covering their faces with a layer of dough to give them a weird and spookish appearance. This custom may be a matter of common knowledge, but I have never seen it referred to in print. It very probably originated in the ghost stories told by negro "mammies." Randolph may have meant that the Northern deserters had false faces, like children playing with dough, and the play suggested the phrase. Children dressed as ghosts might easily be frightened by the reflection of "their dough faces in the glass."

Clay, in a speech in the Senate in 1838, reported on page 71 of the appendix to the *Congressional Globe* for the second session of the Twenty-fifth Congress, referring to Randolph, said: "The two words [dough (doe) faces] with which that gentleman taunted our Northern friends did more injury than any two words I have ever known." Speeches reported in the appendix to the *Globe* are supposed to have been furnished by their authors, and, if that was true in this case, it appears that Clay, who of all men might have been supposed to know what Randolph meant, was uncertain as between d-o-u-g-h and d-o-e. When the phrase was revived before the Civil War as a term of reproach applied to Northern men with Southern principles, the first word was understood to be d-o-u-g-h. In a cartoon issued in the campaign of 1856, three Northern "dough-faces," Cass, Douglas, and Pierce, are represented as dragging the monster, slavery, across Mason and Dixon's line, and in the cartoon their faces are pictured as daubs of dough. While it is not possible to speak too positively, it may be assumed that the probabilities are strongly in favor of the assumption that the phrase was suggested by the children's play of covering the face with dough.

F. H. HODDER.

Correspondence

THE REAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE BRUSSELS DOCUMENTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I add a small contribution to the interesting Lovejoy-Darmstaedter correspondence on a point which, it seems to me, is vital to an understanding of the issues involved in the present war?

I condemn as decidedly as does Professor Lovejoy Germany's violation of the neutrality of Belgium; and, in addition to condemning it, I profoundly regret it as one who strongly feels his attachment to Germany; and I am also of the opinion that it is a mistake on the part of those who feel the same attachment to Germany to make the attempt to justify the violation. Documents discovered *after* the act, no matter how important from an historical point of view, cannot by any process of reasoning make wrong to be right, and the only consistent position, it seems to me, is, as Professor Lovejoy suggests, the original attitude of the German Chancellor in frankly admitting that the act was wrong, and offering as the sole excuse the necessity of self-defence. This, however, ought not to blind us to the significance of the documents found at Brussels, from two points of view. In the first place, they show that Belgium was endangering her position by a one-sided agreement. A nation whose neutrality is guaranteed by a group of Powers is obviously under the obligation not to do anything that might be interpreted as breaking her own neutrality. This principle cannot, of course, be extended to the point of preventing a neutral nation from doing everything to secure her defence; but I venture to think that it ought to be clear to every fair-minded person that when Belgium, a number of years ago, made an agreement with England, which was one of the Powers guaranteeing her neutrality, for action to be taken in case of a violation on the part of Germany, she was under a *moral* obligation to make the same arrangement with Germany, as also one of the Powers guaranteeing her neutrality, in case of a violation of the neutrality on the part of France. This was clearly the view taken by Baron Greindl, for many years the Belgian Minister at Berlin, in a letter dated December 23, 1911, which has been given wide circulation in connection with the Brussels documents, but to which Professor Lovejoy makes no reference. A case as closely parallel as one can expect to find is the double treaty made by England with France on the one hand, and with Germany on the other, at the time of the Franco-Prussian War, assuring France of coöperation in case of the violation of Belgium by Germany, and assuring Germany of the same coöperation in case of violation on the part of France. Both treaties are now published in M. P. Price's very useful "Diplomatic History of the War," pages 272-273. If England had made the arrangement with only one of these two Powers, it would have been a hostile act against the other. Now it is not, it seems to me, an adequate answer to maintain that Belgium had no cause to fear an attack from France, but that she had reason to fear the violation of her neutrality on the part of Germany, because, as a neutral

Power, she was under the *still greater* obligation of not allying herself with any of the Powers guaranteeing her neutrality to the exclusion of others. That, it seems to me, was not playing the game fairly. And the other fact, that the arrangement with England was *secretly* made, and was kept secret, strengthens the point of view which I am endeavoring to set forth.

This point of view is covered by a passage in Kant's very remarkable essay on "Perpetual Peace," to which renewed attention is being called since the war began, and in which he lays down the maxim that a policy pursued by any nation which requires secrecy in order to carry it out is wrong. According to Kant, secrecy as a necessity is, in fact, a criterion for determining whether a particular policy is right or wrong, and he, therefore, adds the corollary that a policy which demands publicity in order to carry it out is right. Among the illustrations in amplification of these two principles, Kant furnishes one that forms a pretty close parallel to the present situation.

Quite apart, however, from these more or less direct bearings on the situation, the Brussels documents, without, as I wish to emphasize once more, in any way justifying Germany's action, are of even greater importance, not because of what they reveal, but because of what they conceal. If communications on the order of these Brussels documents passed between two European Powers as long ago as 1906, and again as recently as 1912, it is safe to conclude that the secret archives of all the Powers from 1906 to date would show a striking amount of diplomatic activity (or, according as one views it, diplomatic intrigue), which finally culminated in the catastrophe of August, 1914. By an accident the veil has been lifted, which has given us a peep into the kind of secret communications that must have been exchanged in large numbers by all the Powers for the last eight years or more. The Brussels documents show that Belgium, just like the other Powers, was also in the game, and our sympathy with that unfortunate country ought not to blind us to the real situation, which is much more complicated, and also much sadder, than any document so far published would appear to show. In view of this, the German scholars and writers are in a large measure justified in saying that when Germany violated the neutrality of Belgium the latter was no longer neutral; but they are wrong in using this as a justification for Germany's act. It is, perhaps, idle to hope that the secret archives containing the records of diplomatic activity among the European Powers will ever come to light, except in so far as accident may give us another peep here and there; but I submit that the Brussels documents of themselves demonstrate the futility, not to say the absurdity, of trying to reach a conclusion as to the guilty party in bringing about this war on the basis of the official documents that have been published. No matter of what color they are, they are all "colored," and in this case even white books are "colored." These official books tell us what the diplomats in each country *wish us to know*, and the mere fact—to give only two instances—that the German White Book did not contain the important dispatch of the German Chancellor to the German Ambassador at Vienna (now

published from the *Westminster Gazette*, in Price's "Diplomatic History of the War," page 250) which shows that Germany *did* exert definite pressure on Austria, and that the very important letter of President Poincaré to the King of England, several days before the war, in which he urged that England should openly declare herself to be the ally of France and Russia as the *only* means of avoiding war, has only now been published—these two instances are sufficient to show how defective the official books are as historical documents.

Whatever the outcome of the war may be, we may feel quite sure that the historian of the future in his search for its causes will look for documents of an entirely different order.

MORRIS JASTROW, JR.

University of Pennsylvania, February 20.

WHAT WAS THE CASUS BELLI?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The judicious and well-informed reviewer of "Books on the War," in your issue of February 11, has, I think, overlooked one of the most significant facts concerning the proximate causes of the present conflict; and he has for that reason failed to bring out the principal objection to the theory of divided responsibility defended by M. P. Price in his "Diplomatic History of the War." Mr. Price has, it is true, given us the most comprehensive and scholarly compilation of source-material relating to the events of the most momentous and dramatic week in modern European history; but in his commentary he singularly misses the decisive point in the negotiations. As it has likewise been missed by many other writers on the subject, it seems worth while to call attention to it. The essential facts, however, have already been noted by Ferrero (*Revue des Deux Mondes*, December 15), and by Denis and Durkheim ("Qui a voulu la guerre?" Paris, 1915).

It seems to be rather generally supposed that the immediate *casus belli* was the general mobilization of the Russian army; and that war was decided upon by Germany, or at least that the decision was disclosed, only after the order for this mobilization was issued, that is, on July 31. The actual facts are that on July 29 the German Ambassador at Petrograd delivered a communication which had the essential character of an ultimatum—which, in other words, was a conditional declaration of war; that this announced that *any* mobilization of Russian troops, even a partial mobilization against Austria-Hungary, would be regarded by Germany as a *casus belli*; and that, the terms of the ultimatum being rejected by Russia, war would probably have promptly followed but for the desire of the Berlin Government to take measures to secure the neutrality of England. In short, the *crux* was reached at an interview between Count Pourtales and M. Sazonov on the afternoon of the day mentioned.

The decisive character of this interview becomes clear from a correlation and comparison of a number of documents: British Blue Book, No. 97; Yellow Book, Nos. 100, 101; Orange Book, No. 58; the Czar's second telegram to the Kaiser on July 29, suppressed in the German White Book, but recently published. And from German sources we learn the actual text of the German declaration. The undated document given on page 7 (au-

thorized English version) of the White Book is said by the German official *communiqué* of August 1 to have been issued on July 26. Whatever the date on which it was first presented, it seems clear that it was formally reiterated on the 29th. It declared: "Preparatory military measures by Russia will force us to counter-measures which will consist in mobilizing the army. But mobilization means war." At this time Austria had partly mobilized eight corps, and the order for complete mobilization was, or was believed by the Russians to be, already signed, though not yet issued (Price, pp. 111-112). M. Sazonof therefore declined to promise that Russia would remain unarmed while Austria mobilized and proceeded to invade Serbia. The partial Russian mobilization, already begun, was accordingly continued; and the Ambassador in Paris was at once instructed to notify the French Government that, as Russia could not "comply with the wish of Germany, it only remained to hasten [Russia's] preparations and to reckon with the probable inevitability of war" (Orange Book, No. 58).

Subsequent events further testify to the crucial character of the action taken on the afternoon of July 29. That evening, by which time Russia's refusal to countermand her partial mobilization must have been received at Berlin, a council, attended by the Kaiser and the chief political and military dignitaries of the Empire, was held at Potsdam. On his return from this, the Chancellor, in spite of the lateness of the hour, called in the British Ambassador, and made his bid for England's neutrality in a European war—thus revealing the fact that the German Government was now definitely expecting that eventuality. At one o'clock the Kaiser telegraphed the Czar that the decision between war and peace now rested entirely upon the Czar's shoulders, and made it clear that if Russia mobilized "against Austria-Hungary," this would be regarded as a decision for war. At two o'clock in the morning the German Ambassador at Petrograd again called on M. Sazonof, and, according to Sir George Buchanan's celebrated dispatch, "completely broke down on seeing that war was inevitable." At noon the Berlin *Lokalanzeiger* announced that a general German mobilization had been decided upon by the council at Potsdam. This was soon officially denied; but the *démenti* was received with much skepticism, and the Berlin correspondent of the *Journal de Genève* declared that he had obtained "the most authentic confirmation" of the report.

Germany, then, at this early date plainly announced her intention of going to war with France and Russia unless the Czar's Government complied with demands with which it was inconceivable that any great Power would in similar circumstances comply; and the extraordinary note of urgency in all the action of Germany's representatives on the night of July 29-30 gave every indication that she was preparing in all haste to carry out her threat. All this made it certain that Russia would speedily convert her partial into a general mobilization; she had been told with entire explicitness that even the former meant war, and consequently nothing could be gained for the cause of peace by stopping at that point. It is, therefore, very odd that to Mr. Price "the cause of the Russian general mobilization remains a mystery," and that he should suppose it to have been only when "panic-struck with the idea of Russia's mobilization on the East

Prussian frontier" that those in power at Berlin took "the fatal step of demanding the demobilization of the Russian army." That fatal step had been taken two days before, when there was no occasion for panic, and when Austria alone could be said to be seriously threatened by the Russian preparations. But Austria herself was so far from complaining of those preparations that Count Berchtold assured the Russian Ambassador that they were not regarded as signs of hostility, but as natural precautions (Yellow Book, No. 104; Blue Book, No. 96); and the Austrian attitude towards Russia from that time on became increasingly friendly. It appears from the Austrian Red Book (No. 56) that even after the general Russian mobilization the Austrian Ambassador, on the very day of Germany's declaration of war, took occasion "to confirm again the good-will of the Austro-Hungarian Government" towards Russia, and conspicuously refrained from demanding that that mobilization be discontinued.

There is, in fact, much evidence which indicates that throughout the later part of the crisis Austria and Germany were working at cross purposes. Austria, it is fairly certain, had no stomach for a war with Russia. But it was believed that Russia was equally indisposed to fight. And the Austrian Government was manifestly determined not to abandon its designs against Serbia until this belief was proved erroneous. There ensued a perfectly regular game of diplomatic chess, in which partial and general mobilization on both sides were recognized moves. When Russia partly mobilized, Austria became more conciliatory; when the general Russian mobilization was ordered, Austria yielded and declared her willingness to discuss even the terms of her note to Serbia. It was a hazardous game that the Dual Monarchy was playing, but not intrinsically incapable of a peaceful issue. Such an issue, however, was rendered impossible by Germany's coming forward, after Austria had made her opening moves, and announcing that, if Russia carried out even the next move—partial mobilization—it would be taken as a sufficient ground for war. Austria had, indeed, on the 28th requested the Berlin Cabinet to notify Russia that a mobilization "against Austria-Hungary" must be met by both allies by a counter-mobilization; but had asked that this be done "in a friendly way" and in such a manner as to "make it easier for Russia to acquiesce" (Red Book, No. 42). It was no part of the Austrian proposal that Russia should be given to understand that mobilization would inevitably mean war. Berlin, however, so far bettered its instruction as to convert a diplomatic manoeuvre into a virtual ultimatum. Into the motive inspiring this extraordinary action I do not here inquire; but it can scarcely have been a passionate desire to preserve the peace of Europe. Austrian official alarm over the undesired outcome of the German intervention is indicated by Count Szápáry's remark to M. Sazonof on August 1: "I can only hope that the course of events has not led us too far" (Red Book, No. 56).

It is true that war was not declared by Germany until August 1, and that on July 30 her tone towards Russia became somewhat less peremptory. This, however, is sufficiently explained by the necessity of taking time to bargain for England's neutrality. That urgent summons of the German

Chancellor to the British Ambassador on the night of July 29 clearly betrayed the pre-occupation that caused the Germans to delay the declaration of war which would otherwise have been entailed by the Russian rejection of the ultimatum of that afternoon. Before this period of delay had ended, Russia had taken the step which Germany's threat had made inevitable, and Germany was, therefore, able to put forward a more colorable, though still a wholly inadequate, reason for her aggression—the "grave and imminent danger" to her security created by "the total mobilization of the land and sea forces" of her neighbor. But, as has been shown, she had previously resolved (according to German testimony, five days previously) to go to war upon a much slighter occasion—had made a *casus belli* of an action which immediately affected only her ally, and to which that ally expressly declared that she took no exception.

ARTHUR O. LOVEJOY.

Baltimore, February 28.

CAN GERMANY BE STARVED OUT?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent decrees of the Bundesrat, confiscating all stocks of bread-grains and flour, and still later of oats, assuming their distribution as a Government function, and requiring municipalities to set aside supplies of preserved meats, have called public attention in a striking manner to the possibility that imports to Germany may be cut off, and have probably given rise to an exaggerated idea of the seriousness of the situation. Much interest attaches, therefore, to the German view of the subject, as set forth in a unique memorial* recently published under the editorship of Prof. Paul Eltzbacher, rector of the Handels-Hochschule, in Berlin, by a group of sixteen eminent scientists, including economists, statisticians, soil experts, agriculturists, and physiologists. The authors state in their preface that the completed work represents the results of numerous conferences, as well as of individual studies, and that they are all in substantial agreement as to the conclusions reached. While the "Memorial" bears no official character, it appears that certain of its recommendations, notably the restriction of the export of sugar, have already been adopted by the Government, and one can hardly go far astray in supposing that it will have much weight in determining future policy.

The actual food requirements of a people may be estimated with a considerable degree of accuracy on the basis of the investigations made on human nutrition during the past fifty years. Substantially, the body requires two things: a certain minimum supply of protein to maintain its working machinery, and a sufficient amount of energy for the performance of its daily work, and these requirements have been pretty definitely determined for various classes and ages. The authors compute the total yearly requirement of food for the support of a total population of sixty-eight millions, making no

*Die deutsche Volksernährung und der englische Aushungerungsplan. Eine Denkschrift von Friedrich Aereboe, Karl Ballod, Franz Beyschlag, Wilhelm Caspari, Paul Eltzbacher, Hedwig Hely, Paul Krusch, Robert Kuczyński, Kurt Lehmann, Otto Lemmermann, Karl Oppenheimer, Max Rubner, Kurt von Rümker, Bruno Tacke, Herman Warmbold und Nathan Zuntz, Herausgegeben von Paul Eltzbacher. Vieweg & Sohn, Braunschweig, 1914.

allowance for waste or losses, to be 1.605 million metric tons of protein and 56.75 billion calories of energy. With this actual requirement, they proceed to compare, first, the actual food consumption previous to the war, as shown by the statistics of domestic production and of exports and imports of food materials and stock feeds, and, secondly, the food supply remaining available, on the assumption that imports may be entirely cut off, and that the domestic production, instead of a normal increase of 2 per cent., will show a decrease of 5 per cent., due to lack of skilled workers, to deficiency of fertilizers and of work-animals, and to the military operations in East Prussia and Alsace-Lorraine. It is interesting to note in passing that a possible extension of the theatre of war into Germany is not considered. Their final results may be stated thus:

	Protein. Millions of metric tons.	Energy. Billions of calories.
Annual food requirement	1.605	56.75
Annual consumption before the war..	2.307	90.42
Available annually during the war on the present basis	1.554	67.68

As compared with the consumption before the war, the available food supply shows a notable deficit, but, on the other hand, it shows a surplus over the actual energy requirement of 19 per cent., which the authors believe to be an ample allowance for unavoidable waste and deterioration. The protein, however, falls 3 per cent. below the estimated minimum.

The remaining two-thirds of the brochure is devoted to a detailed consideration of means for conserving and increasing the available food supply and to a quantitative estimate of their efficiency. In general, aside from an absolute embargo on exports, these means include methods of increasing crop production, especially of protein-bearing crops, a reduction of the live stock, especially of swine and dairy animals, to the number that can be profitably supported without drawing on the supplies of plant products available directly as human food, the prohibition of the feeding of food grains to animals or their use for the manufacture of starch or alcohol, the more extensive use of vegetable as compared with animal foods, and the avoidance of waste in handling and preparing food.

In these various ways, it is estimated that the available supply of protein may be increased by 0.469 million tons, and that of energy by 13.57 billion calories, so that the balance between requirement and supply would stand as follows:

	Protein. Millions of tons.	Energy. Billions of calories.
Annual food requirement	1.605	56.75
Annual consumption before the war..	2.307	90.42
Available annually during the war on the present basis	1.554	67.68
With proposed measures in force....	2.023	81.25

In other words, the best available data show that, with an efficient carrying out of the proposed measures of economy, such as may reasonably be expected of the German people, with its genius for organization and coöperation, the domestic food supply of the Empire may be permanently maintained at about 88 per cent. of the consumption before the war, and about 26 per cent. above the absolute food requirements.

H. P. ARMSBY.

The Pennsylvania State College, February 20.

Literature

ORIENTAL AND GRECO-ITALIAN MYTHOLOGY.

The Golden Bough: A Study in Magic and Religion. Part IV: Adonis, Attis, Osiris. Studies in the History of Oriental Religion. By J. G. Frazer. Third edition, revised and enlarged. In two volumes. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$6.

This is one of the most interesting parts of the series of studies in primitive custom and superstition which are appearing under the comprehensive name of the *Golden Bough*—a name rather enigmatic to those who do not remember the first edition of the original work, in which the sacred branch in the sacred grove at Nemi proved the starting point for long and wandering inquiries into many departments of folk-lore and ancient religion. The special interest of these two volumes is due, on the one hand, to the light they throw upon the poetic side of Greek and Roman mythology, and on the other to the parallels they draw between the rites of ancient Oriental heathenism and some of the practices referred to in the Old Testament, as well as others which have passed into the usages of the more ceremonial forms of Christianity, such as the Roman Church and the Orthodox Church of the East. The three divine or semi-divine personages who give their names to the book belong to civilized, or half-civilized, man: though we are constantly led away from them to savage tribes in all parts of the world, and asked to compare the worship rendered to the three deities with that of African negroes or tribes in South American forests.

Like the rest of the series, these volumes are nothing if not discursive, and much of what they contain might equally well have found a place in the preceding parts. In reading the series as a whole, we feel as if we were being led through the mazy walks of an immense garden planted with thousands of flowers that are always the same, yet always differently arranged, the elements of color alike, the combinations endlessly varying. Perhaps a fourth edition of the book, when it comes, may give us a different arrangement, formed on different lines; and such lines might easily be so drawn as to effect a much greater compression of the matter, and to make it easier to find the particular topic one wants. The series seems, as it stands, to have grown like a tree, sending out its roots below and its branches above at its pleasure, instead of having been planned like a building. However, the facts are in it, in one place or another, often in more than one place, and it is the facts that matter. To look through the list of books cited in the footnotes is to obtain some impression of the vastness of the labor that has gone to the storing of this enormous repository of data for the study of primitive humanity. It is a splendid piece of work.

In these two volumes the pearls (to vary

the metaphor) are strung upon three threads, viz., three deities, the Syrian Adonis, the Phrygian Attis, the Egyptian Osiris. The system of ideas which has created each of these deities is, in Dr. Frazer's view, practically the same. All are Nature gods. Each of them represents the principle of the decay, death, and revived life of vegetation, and especially of that vegetation with which primitive man is most concerned, viz., the crops which his labor obtains from the bounty of Mother Earth, but which it is necessary always to persuade her to give, and necessary also always to guard from the possible malignity of evil or offended spirits.

As men observed the fluctuations of growth and decay, of reproduction and dissolution, by the marriage, the death, and the rebirth or revival of the gods, their religions, or rather magical dramas, turned in great measure upon these themes. They set forth the fruitful union of the powers of fertility, the sad death of one at least of the divine partners, and his joyful resurrection. . . . Of the changes which the seasons bring with them, the most striking within the temperate zone are those that affect vegetation. The influence of the seasons on animals, though great, is not nearly so manifest. Hence it is natural that in the dramas designed to dispel winter and bring back spring the emphasis should be laid on vegetation, and that trees and plants should figure in them more prominently than beasts and birds. Yet the two sides of life, the vegetable and the animal, were not dissociated in the minds of those who observed the ceremonies. Indeed, they commonly believed the tie between the animal and the vegetable world to be even closer than it really is; hence they often combined the dramatic representation of reviving plants with a real or a dramatic union of the sexes for the purpose of furthering at the same time and by the same act the multiplication of fruits, of animals, and of men (pp. 4 and 5).

It is from the ceremonies with which they were worshipped, or "magical dramas," as Dr. Frazer calls them, that we can best discern the nature and functions of these deities. They embody a sort of Nature philosophy, a crude science which is half natural science, half theology, and which, when it is suffused by emotion, passes into a religion.

Adonis is by Dr. Frazer identified, and we think correctly identified, with the Syrian Thammuz. The name is the Semitic Adon, or Adonai, or Adoni, which the Old Testament translates as "lord," or sovereign. Among the Babylonians he appears as the youthful lover of Ishtar, the great mother goddess, the Syrian Astarte whom the Hellenes, having adopted her from the Phœnicians, worshipped at Paphos and Knidos and Cythera under the name of Aphrodite. He dies yearly, and is mourned, but at the intercession of the great gods the queen of the nether regions permits him to return to the world above, and as his death marks the advent of winter, his reappearance brings back the reawakening life of spring. Similar in its main features was the worship of Adonis and Astarte in Phœnicia, and especially at the city of Byblus, the most sacred and perhaps the oldest of all the seats of that remarkable people. Not far off from it is the

river which the ancients called the Adonis and moderns the Nahr Ibrahim, and near the river's source, in a romantic gorge, there may still be seen the sculptured figures of the goddess and her lover. Here was their most venerated shrine, where rites were celebrated so licentious that the first Christian Emperor destroyed it. Dr. Frazer draws some interesting analogies between these deities and their worship, and many other religious rites celebrated by other ancient peoples, the Greeks on one side and the dwellers in Palestine on the other. He throws out not a few suggestions, ingenious, if sometimes fanciful, as to the existence (under a disguised form) among the Hebrews before the Captivity of usages and rites similar to those of the Babylonian and Syrian worships, and goes so far as to conjecture, upon what seems slender evidence, that the early kings of Israel and Judah may have been regarded as semi-divine embodiments of Adonis. An account of the rites practiced in the worship of the Phœnician Melkarth, the great god of Sidon, of Tyre and of Carthage, whom the Old Testament called Moloch (the King), and whom the Greeks identified with Heracles, leads to a discussion of fire rites in general, which our author further connects with the worship of volcanoes and earthquakes, and he carries us all the way to Hawaï and its great volcano of Kilauea in order to develop the notion of fire worship. The description he quotes of Kilauea is from an old traveller and is no longer accurate, and the propitiation of the terrific power which such volcanoes show is so obvious a form of nature worship as to need no elucidation from the superstitions of Western Asia. Here again Dr. Frazer strikes us as a little fanciful.

The Phrygian Attis, interesting to lovers of classical literature from the famous poem of Catullus, the title of which is usually printed as Atys, is regarded by Dr. Frazer as a sort of variant of Adonis, while the part of the Syrian Astarte is taken in Asia Minor by Cybele, the Great Mother, who is probably at bottom the same as the Ephesian Artemis or Diana, whose devotees threatened St. Paul in the theatre at Ephesus (Acts, chapter xix). Attis appears sometimes as the son, sometimes as the lover, of Cybele. The two are evidently deities of fertility, connected with the growth of vegetation and the reproduction of living creatures. The volume closes with some general remarks on the spread of Oriental religions in the West under the Roman Empire. Among these the most powerful, and therefore that which showed itself the most formidable rival to Christianity, was the worship of Mithras, the Persian sun god. How widely it had spread is proved by the numerous votive tablets and representations of the god, in Oriental dress, stabbing the bull, which are found among the ruins of Roman buildings all the way from Sicily to the wall of Hadrian in Northumberland. Dr. Frazer thinks that the fixing of the festival of Christmas to the 25th of December is due to the fact that this day was,

in Syria and Egypt, regarded as the nativity of the Sun (with whom Mithras was identified), because from the winter solstice the power of the sun, waning since midsummer, begins to revive. According to him, "the early Church did not celebrate any day as that of Christ's birth. In time, however, the Christians of Egypt came to regard the 6th of January as the day of the Nativity, and the custom of commemorating the birth of the Saviour on that day gradually spread until by the fourth century it was universally established in the East. But at the end of the third or beginning of the fourth century the Western Church, which had never recognized the 6th of January as the day of the Nativity, adopted the 25th of December as the true date, and in time its decision was accepted also by the Eastern Church" (Vol. I, p. 304). He proceeds to argue that "as the festival of St. George has replaced the pagan festival of the Paxilia, as the festival of St. John Baptist in June has succeeded to a heathen midsummer festival of water, as the feast of the Assumption of the Virgin in August has ousted the festival of Diana, and as the feast of All Souls in November is a continuation of an old heathen festival of the dead," so we may reasonably conjecture that the festival of Easter may have been "adapted to a heathen celebration of the Phrygian Attis at the vernal equinox" (p. 308).

The second volume is occupied with an account of the rites connected with the Egyptian Osiris, whose worship, like that of his variant, Serapis, and Isis, his sister, who was also his wife, had become frequent at Rome before the end of the republic (cf. Catullus, poem x). Osiris is dealt with as a Nature god, being in some of his forms and legends a tree spirit, in others a corn god, and also a god of the dead. He is sometimes identified with Ra, the sun god, at others with the moon god; in fact, he pervades most parts of the Egyptian pantheon. The interest which he has for our author lies in the fact that many of his attributes and many of the customs connected with his worship appear among savage tribes in divers parts of the world. Basing himself partly on some Egyptian traditions, partly on the worship by many of the Bantu tribes of middle and southern Africa of deities whom they believe to have been kings or heroes of former days, Dr. Frazer inclines to think that Osiris was an ancient king, possibly the King Khent of the First Dynasty, subsequently elevated to a divinity. The grounds he adduces are to us far from convincing. Man can make, and has made, gods in his image out of his own fancy just as easily as out of an ancestor. There are some historical personages whom we might readily have believed to be the source of solar or other myths, had we not evidence to show that the myth was older than the historical personage.

In taking leave of this wonderful treasure-house of legends, myths, and superstitions, into which one can dip anywhere with the certainty of finding something of interest and

value, let us suggest to the author that the time has now come for a great comprehensive index of the whole series which might serve as a sort of summary digest of its contents. Such an index would bind it together into a whole, more systematic than the volumes at present form, and would be of great service to those who wish to escape the labor of consulting the indices to each part of the series.

CURRENT FICTION.

Mrs. Martin's Man. By St. John Ervine. New York: The Macmillan Co.

As the story begins, the reader feels that he may be in for another realistic study of provincial crime culminating in what the newspapers call "tragedy"—such a tale, at best, as "The House with the Green Shutters." The situation is grim enough. Mrs. Martin has married her man for his masterfulness, and he has remained an untamed male. After she has borne him two children, he seduces her young sister, and, tiring of them both while the wife is in her third pregnancy, deserts them and becomes a vagabond. Mrs. Martin comes of strong stock and is in character the flower of it. She knows what has happened between her husband and Esther, but says nothing of it. Keeping her sister with her, she opens a shop, prospers, and brings up her children decently. After seventeen years her "man" returns. During his absence Mrs. Martin's feeling for him has become neutral; but the sister has cherished the memory of her guilty relation and secretly dreamed of its resumption. It is she who is overwhelmed by the spectacle of the returned James, no longer a strong, unscrupulous man, but a weak and base one. Then she first begins to pay the full penalty of her early fault. In loathing of the man to whom she has given her youth, she leaves her sister's house and the nephew to whom she is devoted. The boy James insists upon knowing why she has left, and she tells him. He turns from her, as she has foreseen; it remains for Mrs. Martin to bring them together again by main strength of character. Having established them in Belfast, there remains for her life in rustic Ballyreagh with the broken and dependent husband she now openly despises. His power is gone; he is simply a weak and foolish figure to her; and there is something terrible in her direct and dispassionate indictment of him. He is saved from absolute ignominy by his strange and rather piteous devotion for the daughter whom he has deserted before her birth.

This is a work of realism in the very highest sense. It presents human character and action with absolute fidelity, and interprets them in the light of human experience. The girl Esther is neither the "ruined" one of romance nor the sacrificial victim of tragedy. Though conscious of her sin, and suffering for it, she remains for years under its spell. The man himself has fallen into the pit of desire for her in the lax hour of his grief for a dead child. Mrs. Martin and Esther love

each other warmly through it all. This is the way things really happen; the big heart accepts them, and even, if it is big enough, finds beauty in them. "I've tholed too much," says Mrs. Martin in her hard-won placidity, "not to know that things can't be unravelled just like a ball of yarn that's run under the table and got twisted."

Kitty Gaumer. By Elsie Singmaster. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Martha of the Mennonite Country. By Helen R. Martin. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co.

Into Miss Singmaster's picture of the country and the inhabitants, the atmosphere and the ideas, of the Pennsylvania German region, there goes a convincing fidelity that suggests Frenssen's "Jorn Uhl" or certain of Hauptmann's less sombre novels. The higher poetic imagination is not there, nor the philosophic vision that makes of the rural types of the German writers so admirable an expression of the pathos of human existence. The action is limited, and the book images episodes of life rather than its full-moving current. But the sketching is intimate, the sincerity of the attempt to characterize the young people of the German-American countryside indubitable, the design of the narrative expressive of a sense for light and shade; and it is something to have achieved the surface traits of the profounder studies. The heroine, Kitty Gaumer, introduced in aspiring childhood and carried through education to marriage, stands relieved throughout against a story of injustice and its rectification. A poor stone-mason of the Palatinate village is blamed, through the perverse fault of its magnate-landholder, for the stealing of the church's communion service. The shadow blights his life, for he wastes his substance on fruitless detective work, he neglects the education of his son, who falls into careless ways, and he descends finally into the poorhouse. Meanwhile the landholder pursues his prosperous way, and his only child, David Hartman, supplants the stone-mason's son as Kitty's lover. The conclusion of the book sees the true fate of the communion service revealed, restitution made by David to the pathetic stone-mason, and the attempt of Kitty to use her energies towards clarifying the village atmosphere quite justified. It is, however, in describing Kitty's development, with a variety of incident showing the characteristic social institutions and conventions of the Pennsylvania Dutch community, that Miss Singmaster is most interesting, and that her quiet humor appears to best advantage.

In Mrs. Martin's story of the same region and people a conventional framework—the visit of an Eastern novelist to a rural village in search of local color, and his love affair with an unspoiled country girl—ruins the effect of some scattered vignettes of that Mennonite portraiture which once appeared so fresh in her short stories. The urban point of view is assumed throughout, and the sim-

ple people appear through the spectacles of a sophistication which largely distorts them.

The Sword of Youth. By James Lane Allen. New York: The Century Company.

The theme of this delicate romance of Kentucky in the Civil War is best expressed by the quotation from "Troilus and Cressida" anent the "virtuous fight"—"When right with right wars, who shall be most right?" The external incident serves a secondary purpose, for the book deals almost exclusively with the inner emotions. The sword of youth is that drawn by a stripling who attains the age of seventeen in 1863—the last of a family which had embraced a stalwart father and five sons. He goes at the call of his country, and to justify the pride in which he is held by his sweetheart, a girl on a neighboring farm; and he goes only when his grim and desolated mother sees that all the force of her opposition is in vain. Upon the war he had to carry on within himself to overrule her the author moralizes in an effort to indicate the philosophy of the book: "It is the war we all wage between what is right within us and what is right; between one duty and another duty; between what is good and what is good. Not war between our strength and weakness, but between our strength and our strength, between our peace and our peace." It was the Greek dramatists who discovered that the real tragedy lay in this conflict of one ethical good with another, the real katharsis in their harmonization into the larger good; and despite its sentimentality, there is a Greek quality in this tale. The ending is, however, happy; the love story of Joe and Lucy is worked out with carefulness and some delicacy, though the reader might wish a slighter preoccupation with sex. As in all Mr. Allen's books, the employment of landscape plays an emotional and suggestive part in the story, in scenes of lovemaking and farewell, of battle and desertion, and of the peaceful industry which followed the war. The refined style is Mr. Allen's own, and its tendency to become saccharine at times is not irritating in an idyllic tale.

Mr. Grex of Monte Carlo. By E. Phillips Oppenheim. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Mr. Oppenheim's latest book, another of his stories of international intrigue, was probably not originally inspired by the war in Europe, but it was almost certainly finished after August 2 of last year, for when it comes to pointing the moral there is no mistake about the audience to whom Mr. Oppenheim is addressing his words of warning. In the last chapter he dispatches the hero, a wealthy young American, back from Monte Carlo to his native land with a wife and a message—the former a Russian Grand Duchess, the latter a Rooseveltian exhortation to his countrymen to turn their ploughshares into swords and prepare for Armageddon. For "it will be America's turn next." Many exciting events happen before

the Grand Duchess is won and the high message ingermated. Of what these are we can permit ourselves only a hint; they concern an international plot against the integrity of Great Britain and ultimately against the sanctity of the Monroe Doctrine, and the plotters are four European Powers, the leader, of course, Germany, and two of them England's present allies. To frustrate the plot requires the combined exertions of a subtle British diplomat and the Quixotic young American to whom we have alluded. It is all very exciting, and makes a good story of the type with which Mr. Oppenheim has familiarized us in thirty or forty previous volumes.

THE BROTHERHOOD OF MAN.

Christianity and the Social Rage. By Adolph A. Berle. New York: McBride, Nast & Co. \$1.50 net.

This is a book which will provoke opposition and ridicule, as well as sober reflection. Dr. Berle, who is director of the New England Civics Institute, furnishes proof on almost every page of his intimate acquaintance with social conditions and the innumerable movements and organizations for their amelioration. It is impossible, within the limits of an ordinary review, to give an intelligible analysis of the twelve chapters into which his work is divided, but his thesis, and the main outlines of his case, may, be briefly stated. He holds that the whole fabric of our civilization is tottering, and in danger of imminent collapse, because in our modern educational system no sufficient provision has been made for the inculcation of the vital principles of the brotherhood of man and the moral responsibilities inseparable from them. Consequently, the community, as a mass, in its pursuit of the material is unrestrained by moral considerations. This condition originated, he says, in the divorce of religion from property. When Christ left the earth the first care of his disciples was to organize a treasury. Judas, he points out, had carried the bag. So in instituting a common fund the disciples followed a precedent set by the Master. But this communistic principle did not endure. Sooner or later charity was substituted for sharing, and the teaching was that those who gave to the poor lent to the Lord, always in the hope of usurious interest. In other words, the hope of miracle was substituted for money. And this notion has persisted ever since, to the virtual exclusion of the precept of love and brotherhood. Dr. Berle does not advocate communism. What he insists upon is the difference between alms and the recognition of fraternal rights, and what the substitution of the one for the other has meant through the ages.

Coming to later times—the closely-knit argument cannot be followed link by link—Dr. Berle pays an eloquent tribute to the work of the clergy in the early days of the American republic, when their devotion and learning caused them to be recognized as

the natural arbiters in matters of faith and conduct. They felt their responsibilities and acted up to them. But with the advance of material prosperity, the development of cities, the increase of educational facilities, and the multiplication of social and economic interests, they gradually lost their authority and independence. More and more they fell under the subjection of the money power and learned to accommodate their doctrines to the susceptibilities of the rich men from whom they derived their means of comfortable subsistence. With moral teaching, as such, virtually excluded from the public schools and the universities, they, as a body, out of sheer spiritual cowardice, failed to check the moral dry-rot which is the real cause of the flagrant corruption, injustice, and all sorts of social evils afflicting and threatening the body politic.

Dr. Berle is no mere scurrilous Thersites. He gratefully admits the exceptions of godly clergy and truly Christian rich, but true morality—that which implies the duty of man to his brother—is wanting, he argues, just in those places where it ought to be most carefully cherished and encouraged. In the universities attention is centred upon those accomplishments which lead to intellectual, political, or financial success. They habitually accept the benefactions of notorious offenders against political and financial morality, and confer scholastic honors upon those offenders. The courts are under suspicion, not, as Dr. Berle is careful to maintain, because the judges are corrupt—he upholds the courts as the chief remaining buttress of democratic liberty and pours fierce ridicule upon all propositions of referendum and recall as manifestations of malignant idiocy—but because they are saturated with perjury, the perjury of experts, of interested witnesses, and of huge manipulators instructed by counsel in the art of keeping on the shady side of the law. The great legal profession itself has fallen from its former high estate in public estimation, he says, because it has been willing to prostitute its abilities to base ends. The lack of sound morality is evidenced on all sides, in the abundance of quackeries, and in the prevailing distrust which men have of one another. Nothing is too bad to be believed, as the whole phenomenon of muckraking literature sufficiently demonstrates. Even among earnest reformers and the many agencies working in one way or another for social benefit, the same lack of confidence is to be observed. Each organization has its own peculiar specific, and doubts the sincerity or capacity of the others. Scarcely one of them puts any reliance in the Church, or looks to it for inspiration, help, or guidance.

Pessimistic as Dr. Berle is in his estimate of existing conditions, he is yet hopeful, for he finds in the altruistic movements in these latter days, outside the Church, assurance of a genuine Christianity which will, in the end, effect a social revolution, in which an awakened Church will take a leading part. But he has no faith in the efficiency of the multiplicity of theories and specifics which

are the product of what he terms the present social rage. In his final chapter he points to the butchery in Europe as a terrible confirmation of his thesis that the modern scheme of civilization has broken down hopelessly, and must be born again. In this country, he argues, there is a rapid approximation to the European conditions which have resulted so disastrously. If a similar calamity is to be averted here, the rising generations must be instructed in those basic principles of the Christian faith and only true democracy, the law of love and the brotherhood of man. Only in this way can be brought about a gradual discontinuance or mitigation of those social injustices, having their origin in a gross and selfish materialism, which end inevitably in revolution. Concerning Church creeds or dogmas, or the hopes and comforts of religion, Dr. Berle says no word. He simply maintains that in the simplest precepts of Christ's teaching is to be found the sum of the profoundest and only practicable political philosophy for democracy and the world.

THE SECOND EDITION OF THE NEW INTERNATIONAL ENCYCLOPÆDIA.

The New International Encyclopædia. Second edition. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. Vols. I to VIII.

The second edition of the New International Encyclopædia, under the editorship of Frank Moore Colby and Talcott Williams, if not a substantially new work, is a carefully revised one. The thin paper on which it is printed, a happy compromise between the paper of the first edition and the India paper of the Britannica, takes the type and diagrams well, and nowhere taxes the eye. It is a pleasure to handle the new volumes, which, though containing as much matter as the old ones, are only about half as bulky. The new edition will consist of twenty-three volumes.

An examination of the eight volumes at hand reveals no striking changes, but shows the maintenance of the old standards of general accuracy in what has been added or rewritten. No pains have been spared to bring the work down to date, as witness the latest facts concerning subjects like "Congo," "Abdul Hamid," "England," and geographical, historical, and biographical topics generally. "Constantinople," whose history stops with the year 1878, is a notable exception.

The growth of American cities within the last decade is typified not only by the generous space, with full-page illustrations, given to Detroit, but by the increased allowance made for such places as the two Abilenes (Kansas and Texas). Liberal additions, in both text and full-page illustrations, have, above all, been made to technical subjects which have of late acquired increased importance, such as "Concrete," "Electric Motors," "Field Artillery," "Dams and Reservoirs," "Dock," and "Coast Defence." "Everglades," formerly disposed

of in twenty lines, has been expanded into more than a page, with several illustrations. New maps have replaced the old ones under some topics, like "Connecticut" and "East India Islands"; yet it must be confessed that, though something has been gained in clearness, the maps are still inferior to those in the British encyclopædias, and greatly so to the German product. Occasionally one regrets the substitution of a new map for one which, if less clear, was more graphic. Such was the case with the old physical map of South America.

The amplification of articles simply on the score of insufficient treatment in the first edition has, on the whole, been judicious. The particular attention bestowed on Oriental and religious subjects is evidenced by the additions to "Abner" and the dropping of two doubtful ascriptions under "Abimelech." "Absolution" is an entirely new article. In the field of modern biography, "Abbt," "Edwin A. Abbey" (now enlarged to three times the original space), and the notices of the two Achenbachs have deservedly been rewritten. Under "Ezra Abbot," there is a wise omission of a clause which, in the first edition, detracted from the fame of that admirable Biblical scholar.

Entirely new articles appear under the heads of "American Academy of Arts and Letters" and "Industrial Accidents." Diesel has a biography, with a reference to "Internal Combustion Engines" for his invention. Instead of a short article, "Accountant," there is now a long one on "Accounting."

Few modern encyclopædias know how to throw out ballast. The cargo of the International might certainly have been lightened by sacrificing more perfunctory notices of insignificant painters like Achen. And as in art, so in music. What was done in the department of music, under the headings of "Chaminade" and "Chamber Music"—a rewriting and general toning down—might well have been extended to other articles on musical subjects. But instead of economy of words and space, we have now a four-page article on Chopin (more than twice as much space as is given to Darwin), and where formerly he was spoken of as "the greatest modern master of the pianoforte," he is now designated as absolutely "the greatest master."

It is perhaps too early to speak with positiveness of the value of the new biographical notices, but a word of warning may be timely. A eulogy such as that of Phineas S. Abraham is not in keeping with the practice of the first edition. As a rule, adjectives were sparingly employed in designating the rank of celebrities. Yet here we have in P. S. Abraham a "celebrated English pathologist and dermatologist"—with no date of birth or death. It is fair to say that the medical articles in general appear to be sound, and wherever necessary, as in the case of "Acromegaly," have been revised in accordance with the march of knowledge. But it is surprising to find "Cholera Infantum" changed from its old and correct designation to the startling "A fatal form of

diarrhœa," though this is contradicted by the statement further on: "The disease is fatal in two-thirds of the cases."

As mentioned before, the qualifying adjective in describing celebrities is a dangerous weapon in the hands of the lexicographer. In the new edition of the International it is taken up or dropped at will. Sometimes the change is salutary. Chamisso, who in the first edition was (oddly enough) called "a German poet of the day and naturalist," now becomes, more fittingly, "an eminent German poet and naturalist."

Among the ill-defined yet distinctly felt incongruities of encyclopædia-making, as exemplified here, is the enlargement of the article on "Divining Rod," with the mystery (perhaps not such a mystery after all) left where it was before. A pity it is that the opportunity to replace mediocre articles by such as the International well knows how to procure was not utilized in the second edition. "Darwin" (though three authors are willing jointly to father it) is still not full enough, and "Dickens" remains as weak as before.

Among minor blemishes may be included the ineptitude of repeating, under the notice, "Duke of the Abruzzi," the story of his reported engagement to Miss Elkins; the mention of Bismarck in the list of leading articles, as "Bismarck-Schönhausen, Karl"; the absence of an article (or reference) on color-vision; the statement, retained from the first edition, that the population of Aintab consists "to a great extent of Armenians and Greek Christians"; and the queer appellation, also to be found in the first edition, of Bormio as "an antiquated town." More regrettable is the fact that a good opportunity was lost in not enlarging the article on "Chamber of Commerce" in accordance with the growing influence of these bodies on legislation, both in the United States and abroad.

We have thought it worth while to dwell on such comparatively insignificant shortcomings of an excellent work—a credit to the enterprise of American publishers—in the hope that the remaining volumes may profit by some of the suggestions offered.

NIETZSCHE INTERPRETED.

What Nietzsche Taught. By Willard Huntington Wright. New York: B. W. Huebsch. \$2 net.

There is an abundance of guides, expositions, and anthologies designed for those who wish to understand Nietzsche without going through the rather portentous bulk of his writings, but we know of no book just like Mr. Wright's, nor any one that, on the whole, we can recommend more heartily. An introduction gives a brief survey of the events of Nietzsche's life, leaving the body of the book for chapters of extracts from his principal works. These extracts are not arranged by subject, as is the case in all the other anthologies with which we are fa-

miliar, but are grouped together according to their source. To each group Mr. Wright has added a preface telling the character and plan of the book from which they are taken, so that in the end the reader gets a fairly sound and complete notion of the philosophy that is making so much talk—and some noise of another kind—in our belligerent modern world. We say "fairly," not because Mr. Wright fails in interpreting his author, but because, as a votary of Nietzsche, he naturally does not feel the terror of the precipice to which Nietzscheism inevitably leads; his exposition, though sound so far as it goes, stops, therefore, short of the true conclusion. This is shown, for instance, in his omission of any excerpts from "Ecce Homo" and the Wagner pamphlets, on the ground that these writings, while shedding light on Nietzsche's character, lie outside of his purely philosophical work. As a matter of fact, and as Nietzsche himself would be the first to admit, these documents are highly important for the proper criticism of Nietzscheism.

Mr. Wright's excellent selection of maxims tempts one to the audacity of making a more drastic selection and boiling down Nietzsche's ethical doctrine, so to speak, to its solid contents. The aphorisms that one might choose follow one another on pages 75, 80, 83, 101, 112, 120, and 123, thus:

The origin of morality may be traced to two ideas: "The community is of more value than the individual," and "The permanent interest is to be preferred to the temporary." The conclusion drawn is that the permanent interest of the community is unconditionally to be set above the temporary interest of the individual, especially his momentary well-being, but also his permanent interest and even the prolongation of his existence.

The sting of conscience, like the gnawing of a dog at a bone, is mere foolishness.

The desire for victory and preëminence is an ineradicable trait of human nature, older and more primitive than respect of or joy in equality.

The desire for distinction is the desire to subject one's neighbor.

What is the most efficacious remedy?—Victory.

Living—that is to be cruel and inexorable towards all that becomes weak and old in ourselves, and not only in ourselves.

The general character of the world . . . is to all eternity chaos.

Now, this last maxim, on the universal chaos of things, is just as central in the Nietzschean circle of ideas as is the first maxim, on the social nature of what he calls slave morality; indeed, the terrible aspect of his teaching is not in his condemnation and often of a sort that might well be heeded by an age which tends to exaggerate the value of the purely social virtues, but in his inability, when he has swept away the old law, to discover anything in the universe but chaos. So it is that he glorifies power and the "will to power" with no notion of the end for which this power is to be exercised, and with no real sense for the wanton abuse of power. How, indeed, can there be

an abuse of power in a world which is an eternity of chaos?

Mr. Wright, like other devotees of the prophet, has not seen the fatality of this precipice to which the Nietzschean philosophy leads, and so it is he omits from the works excerpted for his volume the Wagner pamphlets and the "Ecce Homo." Yet it is fair to say that their frantic egotism, of the latter especially, is of real importance for any one who would comprehend the natural end of a philosophy which, in a world without rational purpose or meaning or government, denies the validity of tradition, rejects the authority of social experience, repudiates the conscience, and sees nothing but the sheer force of personality.

With this reservation, which must be extended to all the books on Nietzsche written by his disciples, we can recommend Mr. Wright's volume as one of the best of its sort. As for Nietzsche himself, his brilliance as it comes out in these excerpts is almost dazzling.

Canadian Books of 1914.

Of the more important books of the year, those devoted to biography and history are of special interest. In biography we have two volumes of the political reminiscences of the veteran Canadian statesman, Sir Charles Tupper, "Recollections of Sixty Years in Canada" (Toronto: Cassell), and "Political Reminiscences of Sir Charles Tupper" (London: Constable). Sir Charles Tupper is now in his ninety-fourth year. He entered Canadian public life as long ago as 1855, before the confederation of the scattered colonies of British North America had been seriously thought of; he was one of the leaders in the movement that led up to confederation, and took a very active part in the subsequent history of the young Dominion. His reminiscences are therefore of unusual value and interest to every student of Canadian history. As Tupper did more than any other man to persuade the Maritime Provinces to join the confederation, Cartier's wise statesmanship was mainly responsible for the bringing in of the French province of Quebec. In his "Life and Times of Sir George Etienne Cartier" (Toronto: Macmillan), Mr. John Boyd, of Montreal, has handled with admirable tact and broad-mindedness the intricate political and racial problems which Cartier was instrumental in solving, and at the same time has given us a remarkably clear and faithful picture of the man himself.

Cassell & Co. announce the early publication of an authorized biography of the late Lord Strathcona. In the meantime a storm of controversy has been aroused, both in England and Canada, over W. T. R. Preston's "Life and Times of Lord Strathcona" (London: Nash). Mr. Preston, in a very clear and readable book, has done for Strathcona what Froude did for Carlyle, with probably much less honest motives. The man who rose from obscure fur trader to Canada's

High Commissioner in England, and who earned the confidence and respect of all classes in the Dominion, is pictured as the evil genius of Canadian politics. Picturesque as was the life of Strathcona, it was hardly more so than that of Col. S. B. Steele, whose "Forty Years in Canada" (Toronto: Oxford Press) tells with delightful simplicity the story of a man of action who served under Wolseley in the Red River Rebellion of 1870, took an important part in suppressing the Riel Rebellion of 1885, commanded Strathcona's Horse in South Africa, and was connected with the Northwest Mounted Police throughout its most dramatic period, when herds of buffalo still roamed the prairie, and Sioux and Blackfeet had not yet abandoned the warpath. A book of a very different character, illustrating the transition from pioneer conditions to a civilized society, is John King's "McCaul: Croft: Forneri" (Toronto: Macmillan), the story of the lives of three scholarly men who helped to lay the foundations of the University of Toronto.

Canadian history has had several notable contributions during the last year. George M. Wrong's "Fall of Canada" (Oxford: Clarendon Press) is a brilliant study of the last year, the epoch-making year, of French rule in Canada. George Bryce's "Short History of the Canadian People" (New York: Scribner) provides a good working history of the Dominion in one volume. E. H. Oliver's "The Canadian North West: Its Early Development and Legislative Records" (Ottawa: Dominion Archives) is the first of two volumes of documentary material of great interest to students of Western Canadian history. Of even greater importance is the volume of "Documents Relating to the Constitutional History of Canada, 1791-1818," edited by A. G. Doughty and D. A. McArthur (Ottawa: Dominion Archives). This is a continuation of the volume of documentary material covering the period 1759-1791, edited by Dr. Doughty and Dr. Adam Shortt, and issued in 1907. A third volume, in preparation, will bring the series of documents down to 1841, the date of the union of Upper and Lower Canada. Another important publication of the Dominion Archives is E. A. Cruikshank's "Documents Relating to the Invasion of Canada and the Surrender of Detroit, 1812." The Archives of British Columbia issues as its first publication "The First Circumnavigation of Vancouver Island," by C. F. Newcombe, a scholarly contribution to the history of the North Pacific Coast. During the year the Champlain Society published only one book, the first volume of "Knox's Historical Journal of the Campaigns in North America," edited by A. G. Doughty. The Society has, however, in the hands of the printer the second and third volumes of the above work, as well as volume three of Lescarbot, edited by Grant and Biggar, and the "Journal of David Thompson," edited by J. B. Tyrrell.

A series of small volumes of unusual interest is the *Chronicles of Canada* (Toronto: Glasgow, Brook), of which twelve were pub-

lished in 1914, and some twenty or more are to follow. Each volume deals with a definite phase or epoch of Canadian history, each is the work of a writer who has made a special study of his subject, and each represents an attempt to combine accuracy and judgment with readableness. The writers include such names as Stephen Leacock, W. B. Munro, William Wood, Agnes C. Laut, Thomas Chapais, one of the versatile group of Quebec men-of-letters who are equally at home in French and English; Stewart Wallace, L. A. Wood, and L. J. Burpee; and the subjects embrace "The Dawn of Canadian History," "The Seigneurs of Old Canada," "The Mariner of St. Malo," "The Passing of New France," "Winning of Canada," "United Empire Loyalists," "The Great Intendant," "War Chief of the Six Nations," "Adventurers of England on Hudson Bay," "Pathfinders of the Great Plains," "All Afloat," and "Adventurers of the North."

Several books of travel and description relating to Canada have appeared within the last twelve months. One of the most important of these is Howard Palmer's "Mountaineering and Exploration in the Selkirks" (New York: Putnam). A dozen or more books are now available on the Canadian Rockies, but this beautifully illustrated volume is the first, with the exception of A. O. Wheeler's "Selkirk Range," published some years ago by the Canadian Government, dealing authoritatively with one of the most fascinating mountain regions of America. L. J. Burpee's "Among the Canadian Alps" (New York: Lane) is an attempt to bring within the compass of one volume a description of some of the more notable features of the Canadian Rockies and Selkirks. George M. Douglas's "Lands Forlorn" (New York: Putnam) describes very entertainingly an expedition to the Coppermine River, in the extreme north of Canada. The latest volume in the Oxford Survey of the British Empire, "America," edited by A. J. Herbertson and O. J. R. Howarth (Oxford: Clarendon Press), includes not only Canada, but Newfoundland, the British West Indies, and the Falkland Islands. Two volumes of travel in the extreme northwest of Canada are Thomas Martindale's "Hunting in the Upper Yukon" and Hudson Stuck's "Ten Thousand Miles with a Dog Sled" (Toronto: Musson).

Among a number of books dealing with public affairs in Canada are Sir George Foster's "Canadian Addresses" (Toronto: Bell & Cockburn), William Peterson's "Canadian Essays and Addresses" (London: Longmans), Sir George Ross's "The Senate of Canada" (Toronto: Copp Clark). John S. Ewart's "Kingdom Papers," second series, are not yet available in book form.

A. MacMechan's "Life of a Little College" (Boston: Houghton Mifflin) brings together a number of essays contributed to various periodicals. W. A. Dunning, in "The British Empire and the United States" (New York: Scribner), reviews the relations of the two countries during the century of peace following the Treaty of Ghent, relations which had mainly to do with Canada.

Half a dozen volumes of Canadian verse may be mentioned. Wilfred Campbell's "Sagas of Vaster Britain" (Toronto: Musson) contains some new poems, as well as a selection from his previous books. Arthur Stringer's "Open Water" (New York: Lane) is a not very convincing attempt to write poetry without the aid of rhyme or rhythm. A. D. Watson's "Love and the Universe" (Toronto: Macmillan) and Lloyd Roberts's "England Overseas" (London: Mathews) are, both of them, first volumes of Canadian poets of some promise. Laura E. McCully's "Mary Magdalene and other Poems" (Toronto: Macmillan) contains several short poems worth preserving. G. A. Mackenzie's "In That New World Which Is the Old" (Toronto: Musson) is the work of a new writer who rarely rises above mediocrity. Andrew Macphail's "The Land" is a clever little play of character which first appeared in the *University Magazine*.

Of fiction, in addition to Stephen Leacock's "Arcadian Adventures of the Idle Rich" and Gilbert Parker's "You Never Know Your Luck," there have appeared, among others of less merit, S. F. Harrison's "Ringfield," C. W. Gordon's "Patrol of the Sundance Trail," R. W. Service's "The Pretender," F. W. Wallace's "Blue Water," Mrs. Everard Cotes's "His Royal Happiness," Norman Duncan's "Bird Store Man," Alan Sullivan's "Blantyre—Alien," T. G. Roberts's "Jess of the River," G. F. Millner's "Sergeant of Fort Toronto," F. W. Simms's "Etoffe du Pays," E. A. Gill's "An Irishman's Luck," and V. Patriarche's "Rory of Willow Beach." L. J. B.

Ottawa, Canada.

Notes

Thomas Y. Crowell Co. announces for early publication "Christianity and International Peace," by Charles E. Jefferson.

"Memories and Milestones," by John Jay Chapman, will be published shortly by Moffat, Yard & Co.

G. P. Putnam's Sons announce the forthcoming publication of the following: "In the Oregon County," by George Palmer Putnam; "America and the New World-State," by Norman Angell; "The Origins of the War," by J. Holland Rose; "The Monroe Doctrine: National or International," by William I. Hull; "Can Germany Win?" by An American; "The Keeper of the Door," by Ethel M. Dell; "Patricia," by Edith H. Fowler; "Lee's Confidential Dispatches to Davis, 1862-65," edited by Douglas Southall Freeman; "John Shaw Billings," by Fielding H. Garrison; "An American Fruit Farm: Its Selection and Management for Profit and Pleasure," by Francis N. Thorpe; "Plane Trigonometry," by A. M. Harding.

The following volumes are included in the spring list of A. C. McClurg & Co.: "The Boss of Lazy Y," by Charles Alden Seltzer; "Bram of the Five Corners," by Arnold Mulder; "The Return of Tarzan," by Edgar Rice Burroughs; "The Conscience of Sarah Platt,"

by Alice Gerstenberg; "Her Majesty the King," by James Jeffrey Roche; "Breath of the Jungle," by James Francis Dwyer; "The Teaching of History," by Oskar Jaeger, translated by H. J. Chaytor; "A Manual of the Common Invertebrate Animals," by Henry Sherring Pratt; "Favorite Fairy Tales Retold," by Julia Darrow Cowles; "The Song," by George P. Upton; "Peace Insurance," by Richard Stockton, jr.; "Germany's Isolation," by Paul Rohrbach, translated by Paul H. Phillipson; "Airmen in the Great War," by Grahame White and Harry Harper; "Japanese Art Motives," by Maude Rex Allen. In the National Social Science Series this house announces "The Cost of Living," by Walter E. Clark, and "Trusts and Competition," by John F. Crowell.

It is not easy to be honestly critical and at the same time to do justice to such a volume as Walter A. Mursell's "Byways in Bookland" (Houghton Mifflin). The essays are called also "Confessions and Digressions," and this subtitle will give some notion of their slowness and of what charm they possess. Mr. Mursell relates, with a good deal of gusto, his adventures among books, beginning with his infantile purchase of The Boys of England Novelettes, and including a rapturous glorification of Richard Jefferies and other geniuses *manqués*, with appreciation of such greater names as Stevenson and Dickens. As might be expected in a personal work of this sort, the essayist is more entertaining in proportion as the author upon whom he employs his enthusiasm stands lower on the slopes of Parnassus, as he might say. And occasionally when he deals with an exquisite but comparatively little-read writer like Mark Rutherford, his observations are serviceable as well as entertaining. The difficulty with writing of this kind is that it needs to be very good to justify itself, and Mr. Mursell's pen, though facile, never gets beyond the commonplaces of individuality. It misses the piquant phrase, the delightful eccentricity, which we look for in a critic who makes "no pretension to literary criticism." Yet there is more mild pleasure to be got from the book than from many a poor novel which will be bought and read in its place.

The much-bruited name of Rabindranath Tagore comes to us now as the translator, with the assistance of Evelyn Underhill, of the "Songs of Kabir," which the Macmillans publish in a slender volume uniform in style with the other works of the Indo-Anglican poet. Kabir was a Benares mystic of the fifteenth century, a humble weaver by profession. As a poet and religious reformer, he belongs not to the main line of Hindu thought, or rather, perhaps, not to the ancient line, but represents one of the innumerable branches of romantic and comparatively insignificant mysticism into which the old virile spiritualism broke up. We do not profess to have read Kabir in his original dialect. Judging him, therefore, from the present translation, we may do him a wrong in placing him far below such poets as Bhartihari, who belong to the central stream, and whom we know at first hand; but we feel pretty confident in our opinion that Miss Underhill, who in her introduction writes somewhat profusely on mysticism in general, in which she has wide reading, sets her poet on altogether too high a pinnacle. Possibly this is because Kabir, like Tagore, deals in that softened, sentiment-

al, unintellectual pantheism which demands nothing of the reader but the same qualities, and gives him all the illusion of being vastly religious without exertion. "Detachment," for instance, as taught by some of the old mystics of India is a virtue hard to understand, and harder to practice; whether good or evil, it at least called for a man's brain and a man's will. But the sort of emotionalism into which are melted together the "double currents of love and detachment" can be practiced on a London 'bus while passing from a gathering of literary mountebanks to a gathering of decadents—it has professedly been so practiced by one of its famous female devotees.

However, we do not mean that there are not some very pretty things of their kind in this combined product of Kabir and Tagore. And we are ready to do penance for our distaste of this whole modern movement of mock mysticism, whether it comes from Belgium or India or England, by citing one of the best pieces from Kabir—a lovely enough bit of pantheistic reverie:

Do you know how the moments perform their adoration?
Waving its row of lamps, the Universe sings in worship day and night,
There are the hidden banner and the secret canopy:
There the sound of the unseen bells is heard.
Kabir says: "There adoration never ceases; there the Lord of the Universe sitteth on His throne."
The whole world does its works and commits its errors:
but few are the lovers who know the Beloved.
The devout seeker is he who mingles in his heart the double currents of love and detachment, like the mingling of the streams of Ganges and Jumna;
In his heart the sacred water flows day and night; and thus the round of births and deaths is brought to an end.

The "History of the 'Soldiers' Home,' Washington, D. C.," edited by Eba Anderson Lawton, is inaccurately described as history. The narrative text is of slender proportions; one does not discover what the Soldiers' Home is, how it is managed, or what happenings have befallen it. Official documents, letters (chiefly from army officers), and cuttings from newspapers are printed with a bare outline of connecting text. A more suitable title would have been "Some facts relating to the establishment of the Soldiers' Home." Mrs. Lawton is a daughter of the late (brevet) Major-Gen. Robert Anderson, U. S. A., of Fort Sumter fame. As early as 1840 Capt. Anderson, then of the Third Artillery, began to advocate the founding of a Home for old or disabled soldiers. After years of modest but persistent effort, in the face of much discouragement, he had the gratification of witnessing the passage by the Congress of the Act of March 3, 1851, entitled "An Act to Found a Military Asylum for the Relief and Support of Invalid and Disabled Soldiers of the United States." The "Soldiers' Home," as is well known, occupies a beautiful and slightly tract in the northern outskirts of the national capital. In 1888 the Board of Commissioners of the Home bestowed upon the most conspicuous house in the group, where officers reside, the name of "Anderson Building." In further recognition of the unselfish labor of this friend of the soldier, the Board, in 1913, voted to place a tablet to Anderson's memory in the new Mess Hall—to bear the inscription, "An early advocate and earnest promoter of the Soldiers' Home." It seems that Mrs. Lawton was not content with these tokens of appreciation. She has insisted that her father's record entitles him to be described upon the tablet as "originator and founder." One may admire the depth of a daughter's

affection for such a man as was her honored parent, and, nevertheless, question the propriety of an appeal to the public in the shape of this handsomely printed volume. In 1828, William Ramsay, of Pennsylvania, introduced in the House of Representatives a resolution looking to the establishment of a Home for Soldiers. The Secretary of War, in his annual report of 1833, recommended legislation for such a home. Technically speaking, therefore, the Board appears to have been in the right, so far as the term "Originator" is concerned. The fact that Congress appropriated the money for the purchase of land and the erection of buildings is sufficient justification, one would say, for the Board to act as it did with regard to the expression "Founder."

President Lowell has not found any revision of judgment necessary in making the abridgment of his "Governments and Parties in Continental Europe," which appears under the title, "The Governments of France, Italy, and Germany" (Harvard University Press). The new volume contains the parts of the earlier one that dealt with the framework of the Governments considered, and these have been changed only so far as changes in the governmental machinery have necessitated.

The appearance of a new edition of Edward Gibbon Wakefield's "Art of Colonization," edited by James Collier (Oxford University Press), recalls the almost forgotten work of a brilliant but erratic publicist, to whom the British Australasian colonies owed something in the years of their formation. Sentenced to three years in Newgate for his part in a runaway marriage, Wakefield devoted his time to a laborious study of English colonization in Australia and New Zealand; and his anonymous "Letter from Sydney" (not, unfortunately, included in the present volume) contains in an appendix the germs of his later opinions. A relentless controversy with the Colonial Office followed, broken by brief periods of residence in Canada, whither he went first as an unofficial adviser of Lord Durham. The "Art of Colonization" appeared in 1849, and the remainder of the author's life was spent in New Zealand, where he died in 1862. The distinctive point of Wakefield's theory of colonization is the demand that land should be sold rather than granted, and sold at a "sufficient price"; meaning thereby a price which, while not entirely preventing the growth of a landlord class, would check the evils of landlordism by making it possible for every colonist to become, on reasonable terms, a landed proprietor. Mr. Collier's editorial labors extend no further, apparently, than the writing of a brief and rather apologetic introduction.

"Literature and Insurgency" (Mitchell Kennerley), by John Curtis Underwood, is a noise from the firing line. The enthusiasm with which this insurgent throws his hat into the ring and squares off against all pseudo-champions of American criticism is refreshing. Here at least is to be no revamping of old judgments. Modern literature is to range itself among other forces, or manifestations, of life as it is now lived. "Any American criticism that is fit to survive or worthy of the name must recognize that authors, editors, publishers, malefactors of great and lesser circulation and all their works, are to be classed essentially as products of environment

and forces that react on the same, and so dealt with." The progress of muckraking "represents the most important economic advance of the last fifty years." It shows that the public is waking up to the character of its environment and preparing to react upon it to some purpose. The rottenness of our journalism, our politics, our "woman-produced-read-and-catered-to literature," must be boldly exhibited before we can find ourselves on the way to anything better. Frank Norris and David Graham Phillips were the pioneers in this kind of service. Mark Twain did something at it, but should have done more. Stewart Edward White and Winston Churchill have made their contributions to the cause of enlightenment. Half the chapters in the book are given to these authors; the rest to other five who have been weighed in the balance and found wanting. Mrs. Wharton is an academician, "highly typical of the type and the more selfishly enlightened section of Twentieth Century American plutocracy which she so ably interprets and represents." Mrs. Atherton is "our leading lady novelist," a feminist, but even more a patrician; her books are of value only as a safety-valve for herself and her readers. Mr. R. W. Chambers is worthy of attention merely as "a product of environment for which the American people is responsible." For the rest, he is "the prince of wholesale and cheap illusion, of commercialized darkness and flippant immorality, in American fiction." Poor Mr. Howells has meant well, and has even done some service in preaching that "simplicity, naturalness, and beauty are bed-rock characteristics in American literature and life." But he has failed to grasp and to interpret the real problems of the modern world, and therefore does not lend himself to the deepest criticism. As for Henry James, he is "an evolutionary product of the New England conscience supremely misdirected and misapplied along its own narrowest line of least resistance," and "has been encouraged in his production of literature for the spiritually illiterate by publishers' critics and readers who have axes to grind in giving the public what part of the public assumes that part of the public wants, and by people who really believe that the spoliation of English ducal houses, French châteaux, and Italian palazzi of old masters for the American market, as depicted in the *Outcry*, is one of the capital crimes of history." It is regrettable that a critic so determined should have no broader knowledge of American criticism than acquaintance with a volume by Mr. H. D. Sedgwick and familiarity with the complete writings of Dr. Frederic Taber Cooper.

To those interested in the affairs of man and beast in India the name of the late E. H. Aitken is doubtless unknown, though a few discerning English readers will immediately recall his rare contributions to the British press under the cryptic "Eha." Even in India, where he has always been more popular than Kipling, he was more widely known and read under his pseudonym than as the obscure official of the Bombay Customs Department. And yet, in the early nineties, while Kipling was puzzling Anglo-India by his tremendous European vogue, a modest volume called "Behind the Bungalow" was popular from Peshawar to Cape Comorin. "Eha" was the son of Scotch missionaries, was born and educated in India, and there spent his days as a Government official, with the country, its peoples and animals, as his

consuming hobby. The results of this lifelong enthusiasm are to be found in a scant six volumes, the first to appear in this country being a delightful collection of papers "Concerning Animals and Other Matters" (Dutton; \$2 net). Shrewd and accurate observations on the animals of India, the flora of its western coast, and the manners and customs of its peoples, are here found veiling a rare and charming personality. The author's ingenuous defence of the necessity of having a "hobby" is an illuminating sidelight on the cumbersome bureaucracy that allows an enthusiast to labor in the wrong department, a weakness characteristic not only of the British. However, these papers form a valuable introduction to little-known phases of Indian life. The final essay, on "Borrowed Indian Words," should especially appeal to American readers. Our catholic vocabulary now includes words of daily use, like chintz, shampoo, pyjamas, gymkhana, to say nothing of toddy and punch; to find their etymology discussed outside a glossary is an unexpected reward.

In the preface to his "Department of State of the United States" (Yale University Press; \$2.25 net) Mr. Gaillard Hunt warns the reader that he has written "no diplomatic history of the United States, or biographical sketches of the Secretaries of State." The promise has certainly been well kept, for an historical work more completely devoid of those human interests and associations which help to make a book readable and attractive has not come to hand for many a day. Here one may learn, however, how the organization of the Department has grown under successive Presidential Administrations, how its routine business is divided among bureaus, how the laws are published and passports issued, and innumerable other details of duty or management, all set forth in orderly fashion by one who is entitled to speak with authority. Texts of documents and circulars, some of them not readily accessible elsewhere, enhance the value of the narrative. The survey is not quite complete, the important matter of the finances of the Department, save for the earliest years, being passed over. As a formal description of a piece of executive machinery the book is praiseworthy, and should help materially some future historian of the Department of State.

In the *National Geographic Magazine* for January is a description of Holland and Poland, accompanied by well-chosen illustrations. Rear-Admiral L. G. Billings gives an account of his personal experiences in the earthquake which destroyed Arica, Peru, in August, 1868. An interesting extract from Secretary Lane's annual report shows how the Government is endeavoring to release the Indian from the bonds of governmental control and to enable him to stand alone. Many will be surprised to learn that, from the money value of their lands, the Osages are probably the wealthiest people in the world.

"The mental training of a traveller" is the subject of a delightful address by Lord Bryce before the Royal Geographical Society which is published in the *Geographical Journal* for February. His endeavor was to show how we ought to prepare ourselves to get the maximum of enjoyment and of benefit from our habits of travel. In connection with the topic, the profit and pleasure to be derived

from the study of architecture in travel, he calls attention to the fact that "the typically ponderous grandeur of the earliest buildings we know, the temples of Egypt, has been reproduced in the most imposing recent building in the New World, the huge station of the Pennsylvania Railway in New York." Among the other contents is the account given to the society by Col. Roosevelt of his explorations in Central Brazil, which Lord Bryce characterized as not only an important addition to our geographical knowledge, but a fresh proof "of his wonderful powers both of body and mind." There is also a very suggestive and timely article on "types of political frontiers in Europe," by Prof. L. W. Lyde, of University College, London, in which are clearly shown some of the greatest difficulties in the problem to be presented to the statesmen, the resettlement of political frontiers.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for December opens with an account of Russian Poland which is accompanied by a large colored map showing the five principal nationalities in the different provinces and their density. The present war, it is asserted, has shown the mistake the Russians have made in neglecting the fortification of this region while devoting their energies to the defences of the eastern seacoast. The military department contains an account of the Argonne region in northeastern France, and the ancient and present lines of communication in the Balkan states.

John Chipman Gray, a lawyer, of Boston, Mass., who for thirty years was Royall professor of law at the Harvard Law School, died on February 25 in Boston. Dr. Gray was born in Brighton, Mass., on July 14, 1839, the son of Horace and Sarah Gardner Gray. He graduated from Harvard in 1859, and from the Harvard Law School two years later. In 1894 Yale conferred on him the honorary degree of LL.D., and he received the same degree from Harvard the following year. He was admitted to the bar in 1862, and during the Civil War served as second lieutenant in the Third Massachusetts Volunteer Cavalry, as aide-de-camp to Gen. George H. Gordon, and as major and judge-advocate of the United States Volunteer Army. He began the practice of law in Boston in 1865, and in 1869 became a lecturer at Harvard University. From 1875 to 1883 Dr. Gray was Story professor of law at Harvard, and from 1883 to 1913 Royall professor of law. He was a fellow of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, and was the author of numerous legal books, among them "Restraints on Alienation," "The Rule Against Perpetuities," and "Select Cases and Other Authorities on the Law of Property."

Dr. John Ellsworth Goodrich, professor emeritus of Latin at the University of Vermont since 1907, and formerly dean of the department of arts, died on February 24 at Burlington, Vt. Professor Goodrich was born in Hinsdale, Mass., on January 19, 1831, the son of Elijah Hubbard and Mary Washburn Goodrich. He graduated from the University of Vermont in 1853 and from the Andover Theological Seminary in 1860. In 1897 the University of Vermont conferred on him the honorary degree of D.D. During the last year of the Civil War Professor Goodrich served as chaplain of the First Vermont

Cavalry. From 1853 to 1872 he served as principal of various academies in Vermont, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts, and from 1868 to 1870 he was superintendent of the Burlington schools. In 1872 he became professor of rhetoric and Latin in the University of Vermont, serving in that capacity until 1877. From 1877 to 1889 he was professor of Greek and Latin, and from 1889 to 1907 professor of Latin. He became professor emeritus in 1907. Professor Goodrich was librarian of the University from 1873 to 1886, and dean of the department of arts from 1903 to 1907. In 1904 he was editor of the Vermont Revolutionary Rolls.

NOTES FROM ABROAD.

Philosophers who are also politicians cannot be too cautious in their autobiographical confessions. A few years ago, in the course of a dinner-table conversation, Lord Haldane happened to remark that, looking back over nearly forty years, he still regarded the Göttingen of Lotze as something like a spiritual home. This harmless utterance has now been utilized in certain English papers of the baser sort to support their charge that the Lord Chancellor is virtually a traitor at heart and should no longer be allowed to sit in the British Cabinet. He is represented as a pro-German who has openly declared that he considers Germany his spiritual home. That an admirer of Lotze could scarcely be in sympathy with recent ideals of *Kultur* counts for nothing with the journalists who have circulated these malicious slanders.

The establishment in London of two lycées—one for boys and one for girls—is one of the unexpected by-products of the war. Their object is, of course, to provide a secondary education for such children of French and Belgian refugees as are unable to attend English schools owing to the difficulty of the language and the differences in educational methods. The system adopted will be precisely that of an ordinary French lycée. Another interesting innovation is being tried at Eton, of all places. That home of venerable traditions has set apart a house for Belgian boys under the care of a Belgian tutor. Presently, when these lads have become sufficiently familiar with the English language—and with football—they will join in the regular life and work of the school.

The Irish village of Tara—the Tara of “the harp that once”—has suddenly found itself the topic of a heated controversy. It is reported that the Earl of Aberdeen, who has been raised to a marquissate on his leaving the Irish viceroyalty, intends to take the title of Marquis of Aberdeen and Tara. The announcement has aroused vehement protests, on the ground that a name of so sacred association to the Irish people should not be used to decorate a Scotchman, however valuable the services he may have rendered to Ireland. The objection is not made by political opponents only, for even Mrs. J. R. Green describes Lord Aberdeen's action as an “outrage” on Irish history.

Such dislocation of employment as results from war is apt to bear heavily upon the English workingman, who is not, as a rule, so quick as the American to turn to a new occupation when the trade he has learned fails him. Toynbee Hall has been trying a happy

experiment to meet one phase of this need. Just now there is a surplus in London of cabinet-makers, but a shortage of workers in the leather industry, where the Allied Governments are making great demands upon manufacturers. A school has been started by Toynbee Hall to teach leather-stitching to men, mostly over forty, who were previously employed in making furniture. Every man who has had a full month at the school has found good, regular work at his new trade. Many of them confess that they would never have had the enterprise to make the attempt without the help given by the school, and especially the opportunity of learning without embarrassment in the company of others of their own age.

It has been the custom in the British navy for a court-martial to be held on the loss of a vessel, as a matter of course, even though it was a foregone conclusion that there would be no ground for censuring the commander. In the present war the practice has been changed. The courts are only to be held in cases where the Admiralty has reason to believe that the disaster was caused by some failure of duty on the part of officers or crew. The reason given is that, in many cases, the holding of a formal inquiry would involve the attendance of a number of officers, some of them very prominent, who are more urgently needed elsewhere.

In a casual remark thrown out in a speech recently, the president of the British Local Government Board cast a lurid light on the cost of the war. He said if any of his hearers had generously made a donation of a thousand pounds to any service connected with it, he would have the satisfaction of knowing that it was equivalent to carrying it on for a minute and a half. Mr. Samuel, as he more than once in successive Ministerial offices has demonstrated, is a master of figures and may be trusted to be accurate in their manipulation. It is doubtful whether in this case the enthusiasm of the mathematician has not outrun the discretion of the Minister. If, as must inevitably be the case, the donor of a thousand pounds is chilled by knowledge of the infinitesimal value of his gift, how will it be with the patriotic subscriber of a ten-pound note or a feeble fiver, whose influence upon the progress of the war can only with considerable difficulty be denominated in decimals.

This consideration apart, the statement is more striking than the effect of a column of detailed exposition. If there be added to it the daily expenditure of France, Russia, and, in lesser degree, Japan, it is appalling to think what a bill of costs Germany is rolling up at the bidding of the military caste, a bill that will have to be footed at a time when she herself will be drained almost dry by her own expenditure in blood and money. The stupendous character of the war, now completing its seventh month, comes out strongly in comparison with what is known in history as “the Waterloo year.” Just a hundred years ago, when, as to-day, England was fighting for her life against a Continental military despot, it was thought that Parliament had risen to full height of the occasion when it voted a force of 246,988 men. To meet consequent expenditure £6,721,880 was provided, a sum which, as the Under Secretary of State for War said, was less than is spent in a single week upon our army in Flanders.

Science

The normal German consumption of copper is about 250,000 tons yearly, while the production is only about 25,000 tons, of which 20,000 tons are produced from one mine alone, the well-known Mansfeld mine, so that the possibility of any great increase in domestic production would appear to be remote. The bulk of the German copper is imported from the United States, which produces more than half of the world's supply, amounting now to about one million tons per annum. It is obvious that the American producers of this metal must be seriously affected by the loss of so important a customer. Although public interest has centred for the present mainly upon copper, there are other metals of scarcely less importance in this respect; thus nickel is used in the manufacture of armor plate, of special steel for ordnance, and for numerous similar purposes, and in some instances can even be used to replace copper, as in the casting of leaden bullets. Germany produces practically no nickel, but has to import all its requirements. It would appear that the imports of nickel and nickel ore, which latter is smelted in Germany, would represent between 5,000 and 6,000 tons of nickel, of which about 1,500 tons are reexported; so that the German consumption may be taken as approximately 4,000 tons per annum, out of the world's total production of some 23,000 tons. Again, manganese is indispensable in steel manufacture. In round numbers, Germany produces about 85,000 tons of manganese ore, and imports normally 650,000 to 700,000 tons, the bulk of which comes from the Caucasus; so that Germany produces only about one-ninth of its normal requirement of manganese, and the cutting off of the supplies of this substance cannot but seriously affect its steel production.

Mr. C. Davison, of Birmingham, a fellow of the Geographic Society, writes in the *London Nature* that the earthquake of January 13, while by no means of the first order of magnitude, nevertheless was in intensity the most destructive on record. In Avezzano, which formerly contained 11,000 inhabitants, the death-rate amounts to 90 per cent., while it rises still higher in some of the adjoining villages, in Cese to 94 per cent., and in Lapelle to 97 per cent. Before this, the highest known death-rate was 81 per cent. at Avendita during the Norcian earthquake of 1703. There can be little doubt that the disastrous character of this earthquake was as usual due to faulty construction of the houses, which consisted of stones with little or no binding of cement. Also, it was partly due to comparative immunity of the central district from great earthquakes in the past, which has allowed frail buildings to survive. Few details of scientific value are even as yet known. The earthquake occurred at 6:53 A. M. Greenwich mean time. In Rome it lasted from fifteen to twenty seconds. Near the epicentre, there was one shock of great violence, followed by three others. In other neighboring places, two prolonged shocks were felt. The principal epicentre was no doubt close to Avezzano, probably within five miles of that town, and it was in this district that the high death-rates occurred. There was apparently a secondary epicentre, including Isola Liri and Sora, where 500 per-

sons lost their lives. Possibly the double shock noticed at some places was due to impulses in two corresponding foci, about twenty or twenty-five miles apart. The area of perceptible damage to buildings extends almost across the peninsula, from Rome on the west to Chieti on the east, these places being 110 miles apart. Towards the north, the shock was felt at Ancona, Perugia, and Grosseto, and towards the south at Naples and Potenza; that is, over an area roughly 300 miles long, 240 miles wide, and containing about 56,000 square miles. The shock was recorded at many distant observatories, including those in England and at Washington. The after-shocks must have been very numerous in the epicentral area. More than 120 were registered at Rome during the first two days, all of them slight, with the exception of one at 8:14 A. M. on January 14. Earthquakes are neither frequent nor severe in the district chiefly affected. Dr. Baratta, in his "I terremoti d'Italia," defines in it two distinct seismic zones, one including Sora and Isola Liri, the other, less important in the past, extending from Avezzano to Anticoli. To the former zone belong the strong earthquakes of August 19, 1777, and May 9, 1891, and to the latter the earthquake of April 10, 1885. The recent shock must have been far stronger than any of these earthquakes, and it seems to have consisted of almost simultaneous impulses in both the Avezzano and Sora centres.

Blanchard and Wade's "Foundations of Chemistry" (American Book Co.) is yet another though worthy accession to the long list of chemical textbooks for beginners. The authors of this book have written it "with the ideal in mind of teaching the scientific method of thought while considering the facts and principles of chemistry"; and have measurably succeeded in their purpose. Theory has been deferred until a good basis of facts has been gained for its discussion, and an effort has been made to develop the subject by proceeding from simple and well-known facts to others less familiar. Important industrial processes and applications to daily life have been freely used, but with emphasis on them as only illustrations of the principles of chemistry. The style is easy and readable without sacrifice of scientific quality. There is some repetition which might have been avoided, and some teachers will undoubtedly quarrel with the order of treatment which places sulphur and sulphuric acid, and the compounds of nitrogen, near the end of the book and after the metals, but even this may be forgiven in view of the general excellence of the text.

Dr. Charles E. Bessey, dean of the Industrial College of the University of Nebraska, and a recognized authority on botany and horticulture, died on February 25. Dr. Bessey was born at Milton, Wayne County, Ohio, May 21, 1845. He graduated from the Michigan Agricultural College in 1869. From 1870 to 1884 he was professor of botany at Iowa Agricultural College, and in 1882 acting president. In 1884 he went to the University of Nebraska as professor of botany. He was botanical editor of the *American Naturalist* from 1880 to 1897, and had been botanical editor of *Science* since 1897. Dr. Bessey was a member and at various times had been president of numerous scientific societies. He was the author of several works on botany and of a number of scientific papers and reviews.

Drama and Music

EVOLUTION OF DRAMATIC TYPES.

English Drama. By Felix E. Schelling. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.50 net.

In this latest addition to the Channels of English Literature series Professor Schelling traces the evolution of the English drama from its beginnings in the Middle Ages to the close of the literary drama with the production of Sheridan's "Critic" in 1779. The book includes also a brief survey of the drama since Sheridan and a preliminary chapter on the nature and origins of this form of literature. The order of treatment is not chronological in the sense that the authors of a particular period and their works are taken up in due succession; it is determined, rather, by the successive predominance of the various types—history, romantic comedy, tragedy, etc. Moreover, the author does not go very deeply into stage history, although he gives sufficient indications as to the connection of the various theatres and companies with specific dramatists or varieties of the drama.

There was a need for such a work as this—that is to say, a history of the English drama within the compass of a single volume of moderate size from the hand of a writer of acknowledged competence. The book has both the merits and limitations of Professor Schelling's larger work on the Elizabethan drama. On the one hand, it bears the stamp of excellent judgment and accurate scholarship; on the other, the criticism which it embodies, though almost always sound, as far as it goes, is not of a very subtle or penetrative quality. Perhaps this deficiency is due partly to the fact that Professor Schelling endeavors to set down some judgment of nearly every play of the authors he deals with, instead of discussing more thoroughly merely the best specimens of the workmanship of each and the general characteristics of the *genres*. Certainly, in the opinion of the present writer, there is more body to the criticism of the Restoration drama, where the number of plays to be dealt with is not so overwhelmingly large, than to that of the Elizabethan drama, with which the author's name is more particularly identified. As far as pure comedy (minus romance) is concerned, there may well be another reason for this—namely, that the Restoration product in this *genre* is really better than that of the Elizabethan age, Shakespeare excepted. Wycherley and his school knew how to construct a plot as their predecessors did not; moreover, their dialogue is superior in finish and concentration, and, lastly, they were wise enough to discard loose-jointed verse for a prose that is nearly always marked by either grace or vigor, and frequently by both. To be sure, their morals are unspeakable, but in this respect there is little to choose between these writers on the one hand and Fletcher and Middleton on the other. After all, however,

the best pages in Professor Schelling's chapter on the Restoration drama are those which are devoted to the heroic play. His discussion of this subject has, besides, the touch of sympathy, for, despite all its absurdities, this species of play did hold up certain moral ideals at a time when such ideals were not much in fashion either in life or in literature.

In the Elizabethan section of the book the criticism of Ford seems to us the happiest. Professor Schelling rightly lays stress on the strange modernism of the moral casuistry which informs the plays of this writer—how, like Ibsen and other dramatic divinities of our own day, he represents certain impulses "not as temptations to evil about the resistance to which there can be no possible moral question among good men, but in the light of a struggle towards a larger freedom and a higher morality." The author's own attitude in questions of this kind may be inferred from the following weighty utterance which occurs elsewhere in the book: "Indeed, whatever the niceties of our distinctions between æsthetic and ethical values in the realms of art, it is their coincidence, after all, that marks the supreme artistic creations of man." The appraisal of Massinger is also good, and, indeed, generally speaking, except in the point indicated above and in the specialist's tendency rather to overrate the value of the material with which he is dealing, there is little objection to be made to Professor Schelling's criticism. We take it still further as an illustration of his sane judgment that he should set so little store on the questions concerning "the position of the climax and the advantages of postponed catastrophe" and on "the subtle distinctions that explain plot and counter-plot, sub-plot and enveloping action," and the like, which are so often made to vex the brains of undergraduates in our colleges of to-day. Surely, as Professor Schelling observes, a consideration of the endless variety which the drama of various countries and various ages exhibits should warn us against dogmatizing in such questions.

A few matters of detail in conclusion: Why should Professor Schelling refer the reader vaguely to "Creizenach's mention of the fragment of a miracle play on Duke Moraud, belonging to the fifteenth century"? The (fragmentary) text in question, "Dux Moraud," which is unique in the English drama, is generally accessible in *Anglia*, Vol. 30. For the documents which relate to Marlowe's supposed atheism it would have been well to cite not merely Boas's preface to his edition of Kyd's plays, but the *Revue Germanique* for 1913, where these documents are printed for the first time in their entirety. It is curious that at the very beginning of the book Shelley's "Cenci" should be cited as a specimen of "the literary drama of Victorian England." The volume contains a fair number of misprints, the most serious of which is "1214" for "1264" as the date of the institution of the feast of Corpus Christi. Besides, owing to the death of Pope Urban IV in this year, the bull issued

that purpose remained inoperative until it was confirmed by Clement V in 1311, so that the influence of the Corpus Christi festival on the religious drama really begins only with this latter date.

"THE TRAP."

When authors label their work melodrama, as Richard Harding Davis and Jules Eckert have labelled "The Trap" (Booth Theatre), how do they mean that it shall be taken? For melodrama is a very inclusive term: it comprises most of the drama which has been composed in this country during the past ten years. Perhaps they wish to signify that they are not presenting it as a serious problem play. More frankness of this sort would tend to clear the air and perhaps also to give greater precision to dramatic types. Melodrama itself is in sore need of definition. As it used to be understood, melodrama embraced two rather widely separated categories. One included such productions as "The Beautiful Cloak Model," which employed the devices of mob psychology, making in their sudden twists throughout the progress of the action the wildest demands upon credulity. Such plays still have a large following among the masses, and it is a pity that every large city does not have a theatre given up to them. For they are eminently moral in a strict sense, and are often diverting even to persons of intelligence. Besides, they perpetuate a tradition older than "The Two Orphans," the most outstanding representative of the type. The other category may be illustrated by "The Prisoner of Zenda," a play firmly knit and rationally worked out, once the original improbable premises are admitted.

"The Trap" approaches nearer to "The Prisoner of Zenda" than to "The Beautiful Cloak Model," but the authors, by not keeping in mind the rigid distinction between the two types, have created no clear-cut play. So the villain, well enough played by Tully Marshall, is the crude blackmailing sort of fellow not to be expected in the subtler kind of melodrama, and the heroine (Martha Hedman) has the sweet helplessness justified only in a cloak model, or her class. This latter fact naturally calls loudly upon the resources of the hero (Holbrook Blinn), who in general has the daring initiative of a Prince Rupert. Such incongruities could not fail to disappoint the discriminating follower of melodrama. Further annoyance was caused by the authors' leaning now and then, no doubt unwittingly, towards the righteous young problem play. Yet it is only fair to add that most of the audience seemed not to be troubled by this mixture of *genres*, and responded cordially to the thrills, of which, especially in the third act, there were plenty. Mention, in conclusion, should be made of the simple sweetness of the younger sister (Elaine Hammerstein). F.

The Century Company has issued, at fifty cents, Marion Craig Wentworth's play, "War Brides," in which Nazimova has appeared with success in New York. In stirring times like the present, the play could hardly fail of dramatic effect. For whatever may be said of its reasoning, it presents an undeniable tragedy—the tragedy of young women whose share in the war consists in sowing and reaping, and in bearing "food" for future cannon. The situation is sharpened in the present in-

stance by the contrast which one young wife furnishes to the "war brides." They have willingly yielded to the command of Government that they marry and start new life on its way before the soldiers leave for the front. But Hedwig was engaged long before the war began and resents the fact that her child to be must some day be a soldier. So fixed is her indignation, that when news comes of her husband's death, there seems but one thing for her to do—to kill herself—and this she does. It would be easy, of course, to rip the argument to shreds. Such may be the feelings of a prospective mother in time of peace; but in war time, if we may judge from current accounts, women face their supposed duties as steadfastly as the men in the trenches. Before women can afford to rebel in this fashion at war, they must offer some substitute for it. Such a play as "War Brides" seems much like kicking against the pricks; for the real resentment is directed at Nature, which has imposed on the female the arduous lot of child-bearing, instead of allowing her a more active political part.

Four well-made volumes on play-making have appeared in the first series of Publications of the Dramatic Museum of Columbia University. Prof. W. T. Brewster's translation of the "New Art of Making Plays" is the first complete version in English of Lope de Vega's metrical oration, in which with more than due deference to the classical rules which he has outraged he tells how he does it himself. ("But what can I do if I have written four hundred and eighty-three comedies, along with one which I have finished this week?") Prof. Brander Matthews supplies notes and an informing introduction. In the introduction to a translation of Brunetière's paper on "The Law of the Drama," Mr. Henry Arthur Jones good-naturedly reconciles the theory of the French critic with the objections to it recently uttered by Mr. William Archer, and in so doing manages to embroil both M. Brunetière and Mr. Archer with Aristotle. Bronson Howard's lecture, "The Autobiography of a Play," describing the sundry rewritings, and why, of his "Banker's Daughter," is introduced by Mr. Augustus Thomas, and a fourth volume contains Sir Arthur Pinero's lecture on "Robert Louis Stevenson as a Dramatist," in which he analyzes the reasons for Stevenson's failure on the stage. Mr. Clayton Hamilton in the introduction assembles the biographical evidence of Stevenson's lack of acquaintance with the theatre, and provides a bibliography. None of these papers is easily accessible elsewhere; their interest abundantly justifies their publication.

"Go to the vaudeville, thou Highbrow; consider its bills and be glad"—such is the covert message of Caroline Caffin in "Vaudeville" (Mitchell Kennerley; \$3). All the familiar types of music-hall entertainment she describes with a vocabulary of praise more than equal to her subject. Her characterizations are clever and at times vivid, but her love for the purveyors to our unreserved, unfastidious, laughter-loving democracy is too warm to allow of any hypercritical remarks. Indeed, she reminds one of the old Methodist lady who found so much good in every one that she spoke well of the devil himself. Her well-informed, entertaining accounts are accompanied by almost two score of characteristic cartoons by Marius de Zayas. With a few sweeping lines or a splotch or two of black on white he sets before you an inimitable

caricature of all and sundry, from Valeska Suratt to the divine Sarah.

Music-lovers who seek information regarding the whole-tone scale, so often referred to in the comments on modern compositions, should read in the January number of the *Musician* (Boston: Oliver Ditson Company) a luminous article on the subject by the eminent theorist, A. J. Goodrich. It is not too technical for the average reader. Regarding Debussy's opera, "Pelléas et Mélisande," Mr. Goodrich remarks that it is "a veritable Emancipation Proclamation to the slaves of music rules and formulas." He also makes some references to those who prepared the way for Debussy in the matter of the whole-tone scale, among them Schubert and Grieg. "Schubert, in his great C major symphony, wrote an A flat scale against the major chord of C, and though this is not altogether a whole-tone scale, it is in effect somewhat similar, owing to the seeming contradiction between the chord and the scale. . . . Grieg's progressions of major thirds are mostly chromatic. These are bold and rugged, and inspire a suggestion of freedom and vastness. Notwithstanding their chromatic progression, they possess a certain affinity with the whole-tone scale, and may be classified with the more recent innovations which have emancipated the art of music from its arbitrary formulas imposed by theorists who were non-creative, and therefore non-authoritative."

More detailed information on the subject of whole-tone scales may be found in a little book on this topic published by the Oliver Ditson Company. Its author is Ernest R. Kroeger, who also writes as an expert.

When Ernst von Schuch, the great conductor of the Dresden Opera, died, Richard Strauss promised to lend his assistance occasionally pending the time when Dr. Muck could leave Boston and return to Germany. On January 6 he kept his promise by conducting a concert of the royal orchestra of Dresden. In honor of von Schuch he placed on the programme his own "Death and Glorification."

Rudyard Kipling has paid an eloquent tribute to the value of music. He laments the fact that so many of the British soldiers "have been obliged to walk in silence, or to no better accompaniment than whistles and concertinas and other meritorious but inadequate instruments of music with which they have provided themselves." The War Office has authorized the formation of bands for some of the London battalions. A full band means more than forty pieces, but, in any case, a drum and fife might be provided for every battalion.

The late Carl Goldmark, at the age of eighty-five, was writing his autobiography when death halted his pen. It is to be hoped it was nearly completed, for the composer of the "Queen of Sheba" doubtless had many interesting things to relate of musical life in Austria during three-quarters of a century. His last composition, a quintet with piano, was completed shortly before his fatal illness.

The late Alfred Henry Littleton was for many years chairman of Messrs. Novello & Co., the well-known London publishers. He was a personal friend of many eminent composers, among them Liszt, Verdi, and Gounod; to Gounod the firm of Novello paid \$20,000 for his "Redemption," one of those choral works which Saint-Saëns considers even better than Gounod's operas.

The Berlin opera singer, Walter Kirchhoff, reappeared recently as Siegfried during a short period of leave from active service. Instead of the words, "Thus cuts Siegfried's sword," he sang, "Thus cuts Germany's sword." The change was loudly applauded in the Berlin Opera House, but denounced by the critics. Frau Kirchhoff then published a defence of her husband, in which she said: "Is art, then, not to serve us in this grievous time, and to bring rejoicing, confidence, and faith to sad hearts? And is he who feels strong enough to do this to leave it undone?"

It is probable that the work which the greatest of living composers, Camille Saint-Saëns, is writing for the Panama Exposition in San Francisco, and which he has promised to conduct there personally, will be a symphonic poem. He has as yet divulged nothing about his plans concerning this piece, but it is assumed as probable that, since France began the great Canal and America completed it, the "Marseillaise" and the "Star-Spangled Banner" will both be introduced in it, and perhaps elaborated and intertwined with Saint-Saëns's rare contrapuntal art.

Rudolf Berger, Austrian tenor of the Metropolitan Opera House, died suddenly in New York on February 27. His last public appearance was at the Metropolitan on February 13, when he sang Siegfried in "Götterdämmerung." Mr. Berger was born forty-one years ago in Brunn, Austria, and had been on the stage about eighteen years. He made his debut in New York years ago as Siegmund in "Die Walküre." This year he came to New York after serving for a time as a lieutenant in the Austrian army. A few years ago Mr. Berger married Mme. Rappold, who was also a member of the Metropolitan Opera Company. His chief rôles were in Wagner's "Ring."

Art

THE BOOK BEAUTIFUL.

Modern Book Illustrators and Their Work. Edited by C. Geoffrey Holme and Ernest G. Halton. Text by M. C. Salaman. New York: "The Studio" (John Lane.) \$3 net.

The fact that Mr. Salaman heads his readable and interesting text "British Book-Illustration" does not change the other fact that the title-page of the book is misleading. It is well to be carefully definite in such matters. One can hardly offer the explanation (not excuse), in this case, of an insularity calmly oblivious to work accomplished elsewhere, for the pages of foreign news in the *Studio* show a pleasing broadmindedness.

So much said, one may pass to enjoyment of the contents of the book, which, besides the short introductory text, offers the work of fifty illustrators. The list of names suggests such contrasts as Crane and Beardsley, Morris and Sullivan, H. M. Brock and Vernon Hill, Rackham and Thomson, Frank Reynolds and Dulac. One may regret somewhat the absence of such men as Belcher or Armour, which, of course, is due to the fact that they are "comic artists" on *Punch*,

and not illustrators. Yet the rather cheaply funny "To the Re-seeing" of Frank Reynolds finds a place; but so does also the more robust and intelligent humor of C. E. and H. M. Brock and of Hugh Thomson. To say that their work is essentially British is to accentuate precisely the charm of national and racial characteristics. It is only where the national spirit is turned with blinkered eyes towards the outside that one gets such results as René Bull's farcical Arabian Nights. What sympathetic handling of exotic themes may produce we see in the work of Dulac and Rackham, or the gentler fancy of R. Anning Bell's "graciousness of line." Over the weaker manifestations of the spirit of fantasy—in some cases strained into a semblance of force or odd originality—one passes gladly to those who attempt realism tempered by thought. And we find E. J. Sullivan, of "robust interpretative imagination"; Gerald Metcalfe, who builds on a tradition, a feeling of the "sixties," with healthy versatility and adaptiveness; Byam Shaw, with "fecundity of illustrative invention."

We need not dwell upon the fact that not all of the work here shown is quite convincing, that not all of it shows a thorough application on the part of the artist. There is enough to please eye and mind without troubling long with what fails to please. And if towards the end Mr. Salaman's text exhibits a tendency to become prettily perfunctory, here, too, one may, without much effort, pull out plums. There are, for instance, his comments on the older men, and particularly his reiterated references to the importance of the "ideal of harmonious decorative relation between the lettering of the page and its pictorial adornment," producing the "Book Beautiful," which, as he truly says, "is as yet a rare thing": rare in England, rarer still with us; not quite so rare on the European Continent.

The issue of the *Architectural Quarterly* of Harvard University for last June consisted entirely of an important paper by Prof. Sidney Fiske Kimball, of Michigan University, on "Thomas Jefferson as Architect: Monticello and Shadwell." The appearance last year of a book by W. A. Lambeth and W. H. Manning on "Thomas Jefferson as an Architect and Designer of Landscapes" (reviewed in the *Nation* for December 4, 1913) provoked anew the old controversy regarding Jefferson's qualifications for the title of architect, in the strict professional sense. In the *Journal* of the American Institute of Architects for May, 1914, his right to this title was questioned by Mr. N. M. Isham, in an article casting doubt upon the authenticity and authorship of drawings attributed to the great statesman, and representing him as merely a rather gifted amateur in architectural matters. To this Professor Kimball replied briefly in the July issue of the *Journal*, and the paper in the *Architectural Quarterly* embodies the results of his further investigations of the question, not only in the printed literature on the subject in various libraries and of the drawings and papers referred to in the book and articles above mentioned, but in a vast mass of Jefferson's correspondence

and other papers in the Library of Congress, the State Library at Richmond, Va., and above all the Coolidge collection in the library of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Professor Kimball's paper relates chiefly to the design of Monticello, and presents, by a careful comparison of drawings which he believes to be indisputably Jefferson's own work, with one another and with his letters, a very reasonable theory of the process of gradual evolution of the design of Monticello. He disputes Mr. Isham's denial of originality in this design, and claims for it a direct Palladian inspiration modified by French influences, due to Jefferson's sojourn in Paris as American Minister, 1784-89. He agrees with the writer of the review in the *Nation* that Jefferson was no mere amateur, but an architect in both the artistic and practical meanings of that title, at a time when architecture had not yet been established as a profession by such men as Bulfinch, Thornton, Latrobe, and Hoban. He goes further, in making Jefferson the real initiator of the Roman classical revival in the United States which preceded the Greek revival of 1825-50. This contention may not find universal acceptance; but Professor Kimball's paper, brief as it is, must by reason of its careful scholarship be considered a highly important *document pour servir* in all future discussion of Jefferson's place in the history of American architecture.

Finance

THE UNITED STATES AND THE WAR.

This past week's almost bewildering series of events connected with the war—the German "war zone" policy, with its menace of international complications; the threat of English reprisals, through an embargo on all German trade; the Russian defeat in East Prussia; the capture of the Dardanelles forts and the expected fall of Constantinople; the state of affairs suggested by the reported change in the leadership of the German navy and in the German Embassy at Washington; the renewed break in New York exchange on Europe—all this made up a complicated situation for the Stock Exchange to reflect. What happened on that market was, first, that prices moved cautiously down, apparently through fear of a diplomatic clash with Germany; but, next, that they recovered steadily, indicating financial hopefulness. No doubt, a partial cause for this recovery was the growing conviction, based on many recent events, that the end of the war is nearer than the markets lately had supposed. But behind even this stood the influence of the remarkable movement in our foreign trade.

Upon that part of the situation, the Government's report, last week, on the country's ocean commerce during January, threw a striking light. That our wheat exports of that month were double the amount shipped in any previous January, and that even our cotton exports broke all January records but one, the markets knew beforehand. They also knew of the enormous shipments of war materials and supplies. The estimate +

these orders, combined with the increased export of food, were running at the rate of a billion dollars annually, was somewhat overdrawn. Our mills and farms would not be able to turn out anything worth that sum; in 1913, the last full year of peace, the country's total export of foodstuffs, animals, and manufactured goods was less than \$1,300,000,000. But the actual showing is remarkable enough.

To understand this trade situation, a further bit of retrospect is necessary. It was the Government's report on our foreign commerce in December, published a month ago and more than confirming estimates previously deemed incredible, which waked up the markets to what was going on. As late as November, the export trade of the United States had run \$39,700,000 behind the same month of the year before; and the excess of merchandise exports over imports was less by \$18,000,000. So sudden was the change in December that not only were exports \$13,000,000 greater than in 1913, and fifth in the whole list of monthly "export records," but the surplus over imports, \$131,800,000, was surpassed by only one other month of our previous history.

The returns for January properly cap the climax. They show last month's actual export trade of the country to have been \$63,700,000 ahead of January, 1914, \$40,700,000 beyond the highest previous total for that month, and never equalled in any previous month except November, 1912, and October, 1913. The January surplus of exports, \$145,500,000, has never hitherto been approached; the monthly maximum, up to this present year, having been the \$138,900,000 of October, 1913. It is actually \$96,000,000 above the export excess of the preceding January.

To what extent these two last amazing months have reversed our country's situation in the balance of merchandise trade with the outside world, since the war began, is strikingly shown by two comparisons. In the first four months of war, between August 1 and November 30, our export surplus was less by \$199,000,000 than in the same months a year before. In the two ensuing months of December and January, the excess of exports ran \$179,000,000 ahead of the preceding year. The results for February will undoubtedly bring up this surplus, for the full seven months of war-time, to a figure much above last year's.

It may be doubted if so sensational, sudden, and dramatic a change in form has ever before been witnessed in commercial history. The period which perhaps most nearly approximates it was that preceding 1898; but the causes for the sudden change in trade conditions, then, were different from what now exist. In the twelve months ending with June, 1895, our surplus of merchandise exports was only \$75,000,000. It was not much more in the next twelve months, and for the two years our gold exports ran to \$178,000,000. But in 1897 the merchandise export excess rose to \$286,000,000, and in 1898 to \$615,000,000; we drew \$209,000,000 gold from outside

markets; the entire situation in this country changed.

The perfectly visible reasons were, however, that Europe, confronted with famine by the disastrous failure of its own crops, bought in unprecedented quantities from our own great harvests, and that sudden revival of European industry called for enormous import of materials, which our own mills, emerging from a long period of idleness, were able instantly to supply. Superficially, some resemblance may be traced between that sudden reversal in the conditions of our export trade and the reversal of the past few months. But whereas failure of European harvests, and peremptory European requirements for supplies to use in peaceful industry, explained the episode of seventeen years ago, it is war blockades, war apprehensions, and urgent need for war materials, which account for that of the past six months.

Every one knows what was the longer sequel to the sudden expansion of our foreign trade in 1897. The United States entered a new phase of its financial history. The huge export business continued to increase; our economic power became the talk of Europe; Continental statesmen, with their eye on home manufacture, talked of the "American peril." It would be premature to assume a similar sequel to the existing situation. The circumstances of our present extraordinary foreign commerce being abnormal and temporary, the trade expansion has itself somewhat the nature of an exotic. The influences which are impelling this expansion might be altered by success in a German submarine blockade of England, or by the ending of the war.

Yet it will also be conceded, by experienced students of affairs, that there are other circumstances favoring continuance of our present remarkable position. Even the sudden termination of the war, a few months hence, would leave Europe with its harvests of 1915 largely ruined by the tramp of armies, or shortened by the sending of farm hands to the front, and with requirements of materials to repair the destruction of Europe's tangible property by the war, such as would call with the utmost urgency on the manufacturing energies of neutrals.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK

FICTION.

- Bailey, H. C. *The Gentleman Adventurer*. Doran. \$1.25 net.
 Benson, E. F. *Arundel*. Doran. \$1.25 net.
 Comfort, W. L. *Red Fleece*. Doran. \$1.25 net.
 Dehan, R. *The Man of Iron*. Stokes. \$1.25 net.
 Gorson, G. *Blue Blood and Red*. Holt. \$1.35 net.
 Grogan, G. *A Drop in Infinity*. Lane. \$1.25 net.
 Harris, F. *The Veils of Isis*. Doran. \$1.25 net.
 Hueffer, F. M. *The Good Soldier*. Lane. \$1.25 net.
 Martin, H. R. *Martha of the Mennonite Country*. Doubleday, Page. \$1.35 net.
 Sheehan, C. P. A. *The Graves at Kilmorna*. Longmans, Green. \$1.35 net.

- Thorndyke, R. Dr. Syn. Doubleday, Page. \$1.25 net.
 Warwick, A. *The Chalk Line*. Lane. \$1.25 net.
 Williams, S. A. *Reluctant Adam*. Houghton Mifflin. \$1.35 net.

MISCELLANEOUS.

- Carnegie Institution of Washington. Year Book No. 13, 1914. Washington, D. C.: Carnegie Institution.
 Cressman, E. D. *Humanistic Studies*. Vol. I. No. 4. *The Semantics of -Mentum, -Bulum, and -Culum*. University of Kansas.
 Davids, C. A. F. R. *Buddhist Psychology*. (The Quest series.) Macmillan. \$1 net.
 Hoare, A. *An Italian Dictionary*. Cambridge University Press.
 Home University Library: *An Outline of Russian Literature*. The Ancient East. The Navy and Sea Power. Holt. 50 cents net each.
 Jones, J. P. *India: Its Life and Thought*. Macmillan. \$1.50 net.
 Journals of the Continental Congress. Library of Congress. Vol. XXIII, 1782. Washington: Government Printing Office.
 Kidd, B. *Social Evolution*. New edition, revised. Macmillan. \$1.50 net.
 Kroeber, A. L. *Serian, Tequistlatecan, and Hokan*. Berkeley, Cal.: University of California Press.
 Michell, R., and Forbes, N. *The Chronicle of Novgorod. 1016-1471*. Camden Third series. Vol. XXV.
 Parker, I. *Dissenting Academies in England*. Cambridge University Press.
 Prescriptions. Selected by E. M. Lamb. Houghton Mifflin. 50 cents net.
 Schoff, H. K. *The Wayward Child*. Bobbs-Merrill. \$1 net.
 The American Year Book. 1914. Appleton.
 The Golden Legend: *Lives of the Saints*. Selected by G. V. O'Neil. Cambridge University Press.

RELIGION AND PHILOSOPHY.

- Ames, Edward S. *The Higher Individualism*. Houghton Mifflin. \$1.10 net.
 Barnes, C. W. *Social Messages: The New Sanctification*. Methodist Book Concern. 50 cents net.
 Berry, E. S. *Commentary on the Psalms*. Benziger Brothers. \$2 net.
 Hodges, G. *The Early Church*. Houghton Mifflin. \$1.75 net.
 Hughes, B. E. H. *The Bible and Life*. Methodist Book Concern. \$1 net.
 Mason, A. J. *The Church of England and Episcopacy*. Cambridge University Press.
 Holmes, J. H. *Is Death the End?* Putnam. \$1.50 net.
 Ladd, G. T. *What Ought I to Do?* Longmans, Green. \$1.50 net.
 Lehman, E. *Early Kings and Prophets*. Series II. Bloch Pub. Co.
 Lewis, H. S. *Liberal Judaism and Social Service*. Bloch Pub. Co.
 Papers of the American Society of Church History. Edited by W. W. Rockwell. Second series. Vol. IV. Putnam. \$3 net.
 Shephard, H. B. *Jesus and Politics*. Dutton. \$1 net.
 Underhill, E. *Practical Mysticism*. Dutton. \$1 net.
 Ward, W. T. *Variety in the Prayer Meeting*. Methodist Book Concern. 50 cents net.
 Wild, L. H. *Geographic Influences in Old Testament Masterpieces*. Boston: Ginn. \$1 net.

GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMICS.

- Garner, J. W. *Some Questions of International Law in the European War*. American Journal of International Law.
 Official Congressional Directory. Second Edition. For the Use of the United States Congress.
 Plenge, J. *Der Krieg und die Volkswirtschaft*. Münster, Germany: Borgmeyer & Co. 1 mark.
 Rohrbach, P. *German World Policies*. Macmillan. \$1.25 net.
 United States Geological Survey. *Mineral Resources of the United States*. Part I, Metals. Part II, Non-Metals. Washington: Government Printing Office.
 United States Brewers' Association. *The 1914 Year Book*. The Alcohol Question and Saloon-Reform.

Williams, J. F. Proportional Representation and British Politics. Duffield. 50 cents net.

BIOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Cramb, J. A. Origins and Destiny of Imperial Britain. Dutton. \$1.50 net.
 English-American Governess. What I Found Out in the House of a German Prince. Stokes. \$1.25 net.
 Foerster-Nietzsche, Mrs. The Life of Nietzsche. Vol. II. Sturgis & Walton Co. \$4 net.
 Ford, H. J. The Scot-Irish in America. Princeton University Press. \$2 net.
 Fraser, G. M. The Aberdonians and Other Lowland Scots. Aberdeen: The Bon-Accord Press.
 Griffis, W. E. Millard Fillmore. Ithaca, N. Y.: Andrus & Church.
 Sarolea, C. How Belgium Saved Europe. Phila.: Lippincott. \$1 net.
 Skinner, A. Indians of Greater New York. Cedar Rapids, Ia.: The Torch Press. \$1 net.
 White, M. V. Friends and Memories. Longmans, Green. \$3.50 net.

TRAVEL.

Hutchinson, W. E. Byways Around San Francisco Bay. Abingdon Press. \$1 net.

POETRY.

Chesterton, G. K. The Wild Knight. Dutton. \$1.25 net.
 Robinson, E. A. Captain Craig: A Book of Poems. Macmillan. \$1.25 net.

SCIENCE.

Adams, J. Making the Most of One's Mind. Doran. \$1 net.
 Bailey, L. H. Plant-Breeding. Rural Science Series. Macmillan. \$2 net.
 Clarkson, R. P. Practical Talks on Farm Engineering. Doubleday, Page. \$1 net.
 Conklin, Edwin G. Heredity and Environment. Princeton University Press. \$2 net.
 Leffingwell, A. An Ethical Problem. G. P. Farrell. \$2.50 net.
 Rion, H. The Truth About Twilight Sleep. McBride, Nast. \$1.50 net.

The Law of Nature and the Wonders of Ourselves. Law of Nature Pub. House. \$1.50 net.

DRAMA AND MUSIC.

Jones, Henry A. The Theatre of Ideas. Doran. \$1 net.
 Reynolds, B. Everychild. Boston: Badger. \$1 net.

ART.

Banning, K. Bypaths in Arcady. Chicago: Brothers of the Book.

JUVENILE.

Grant, A. A Cadet of Belgium. Doran. 60 cents net.

TEXTBOOKS.

Earhart, L. B. Types of Teaching. Houghton Mifflin. \$1.25 net.
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